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ABSTRACT

Organized under a 1943 Federal grant and later constituted as a state agency, the Good Neighbor Commission of Texas is charged with coordinating the work of Federal, state, and local government units in improving travel and working conditions of migrant farm workers. A basic responsibility is surveying conditions and determining problem areas related to migrants. In 1971, the 62nd Legislature gave the Commission the responsibility for developing, in coordination with state agencies, specific programs to meet the needs of agricultural workers and their families. The Commission's efforts are the basis for this 1972 annual report. An overview of Texas migrant labor describes the emergence and final domination of the seasonal agricultural labor force by Spanish speaking people. The following are discussed: Texas agriculture and migrant labor, alien labor and immigration, technical-vocational education in Texas, and consumer state concerns. Current developments in education, housing, health, jobs, and economics are also presented. The trends in farm labor and what has been happening to the local domestic, migratory, and foreign worker in the past decade summarize the data. (NQ)

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TEXAS MIGRANT LABOR

Annual Report
1972

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The Texas Good Neighbor Commission

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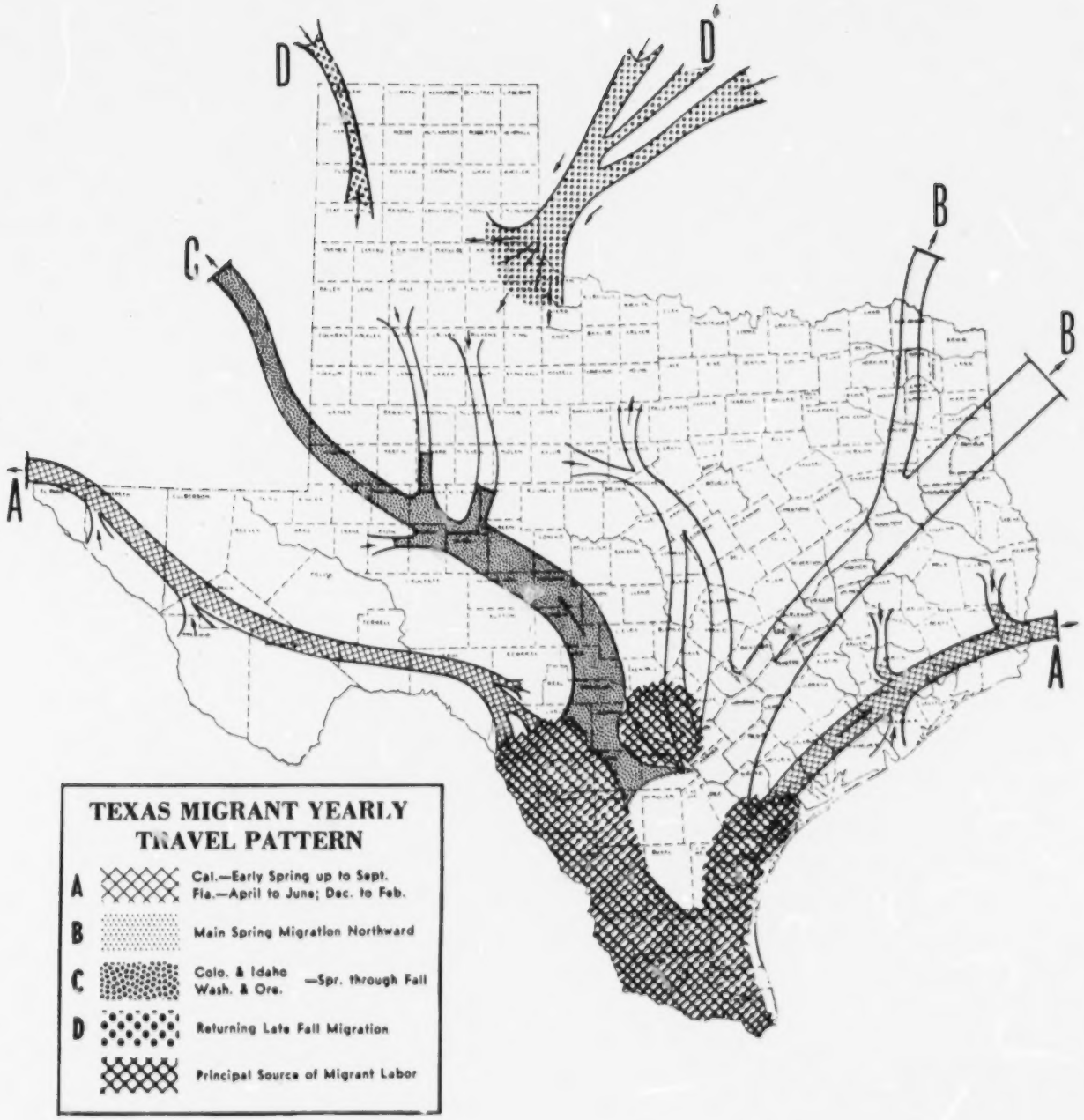
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TEXAS MIGRANT LABOR — AN OVERVIEW

It is customary, in the preparation of a comprehensive report, to acquaint the reader with the topic for review by means of an introduction or foreword generalizing the subject. In the present instance, that of introducing the Texas migrant farm worker, we prefer to use the term Overview as we are not only interested in who is a migrant and why is he one, but we are also interested in what characteristics, concerns and unique problems so set him apart from the rest of society that his participation in that society is minimal. However, in all reality, an overview on the general subject of migrant labor is hardly necessary for the orientation of our readers toward the content of this report. For the past several years the quantity of articles, papers and commentaries concerning these economically and socially deprived people has been inordinately large. Conferences of concerned persons have been held throughout the land, research and study grants have been numerous, a substantial number of hearings held by the Sub Committee on Migratory Labor have produced several volumes of testimony, the media has been commendably prolific in its coverage and network TV has aired to a national audience in prime time documentary programs structured around these migrant people who attempt to earn their living in a hostile atmosphere of relentless uncertainty. The result of this intensive exposure to facts, figures and opinions has created an informed citizenry which is insisting that this segment of our population be afforded the opportunity and preparation necessary for a more equitable participation in this country's bounty.

From one point of view migrant workers in agriculture can be considered as a product of evolution and like evolution they are in a continuous state of flux and change over which they exercise little or no control. At the turn of the century one out of every three persons lived on a farm. Farm families as a rule were large and the labor force consisted mostly of the farm operator and his family. The need for additional help was seldom and those who were hired were generally alien immigrants who were using farm work as a temporary income source until they could make their own stake. As changes occurred in agricultural technology and the industrial revolution began luring rural workers to urban areas the farmer often found himself in need of "supplemental farmworkers," particularly during certain seasons of the year. This itinerant supplemental worker proved to be the forerunner of the present day migrant who is supposed to work on seasonal demand and who, when not needed, is supposed to conveniently disappear. Thus, until recently, these migrant workers were sort of peripheral citizens living an "outside-looking-in" type of existence and being for the most part ignored, misunderstood and all too often maligned. A formerly complacent public, faced with irrefutable proof of the bare subsistence conditions migrants endure, has developed an awareness that there is a migrant "problem" in our nation, that these people do form a vital and indispensable link in our life style chain, that steps must be taken to alleviate their present situation, and, that time is of the essence.

Texas migrant labor, which makes up almost half of the nation's migrant workers, is all of this and much more. We use the word more because of the added complexities arising from their ethnic heritage. A brief review of the circumstances involved will show that it is only natural that our farm labor force would consist almost entirely of Mexican Americans. First of all, the United States acquired an instant population increase with the signing of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848. The Mexi-

cans who lived in this great territory, later to be known as the Southwest, were, and would continue to be, land oriented and most of them decided to adopt U.S. citizenship rather than uproot and seek a new beginning in the Republic of Mexico. Immediately prior to 1900, immigration from Europe had been severely restricted by the Alien Contract Labor Law and the Asian immigration had long since been curtailed by the Exclusion Act. Shortly thereafter the ranks of the resident Mexican Americans were to be swollen by almost a million exiles, from all social levels, fleeing the political unrest and oppression in Mexico during the era of revolution and upheaval. The significance of this exodus is apparent when one learns that this is the only time (1910-1920) since statistics gathering began in 1880 that Mexico shows an actual decrease in population. With the coming of political stability in Mexico many affluent Mexicans, along with those with political or property reasons, returned to their native land. The greatest majority remained however. They were people who owned modest homes, the less affluent and also the rootless drifters to whom one place was just as good as another.

During this same period the Immigration Act of 1917 came into being stipulating the requirements to be met by Western Hemisphere aliens seeking temporary admission to work in industry or agriculture in this country for a fixed length of time. Later, in 1924 national quotas were established for the Eastern Hemisphere which sharply diminished immigration from Europe; however, this caused no change in the "de facto" open border with Mexico and immigration into the Southwest, particularly into Texas, continued unabated. The dust bowl days of the 30's then followed, when drought conditions in the central portion of the nation made farming untenable and drove many families from their farms. Most of them departed for the West and never returned. For many years they were the unsettled ones, invisible and soon forgotten as the country slowly pulled itself out of the mire of the Depression. Then came the event that most scholars agree was the catalyst for the farm labor turnabout — the manpower shortage of World War II. When farm labor from all parts of the country was drawn into war industries and the armed forces, it was replaced by Mexican Americans who were unqualified for jobs in industry because of language difficulties, lack of skills and by discrimination but who were unquestionably suited for farm work by their rural traditions and culture.

This drastic and dramatic displacement of labor forces by the war effort was not without its consequences. It immediately became apparent that the demand for labor at peak season harvest in the Great Lakes area, the Mid-West and the Northwest, which involved the need for thousands of workers, could not be satisfactorily met by our domestic labor supply. The only solution was to import labor. The obvious source of supply for farm workers was across the border to the south and thus the birth of the Bracero Program whereby Mexican aliens were brought into this country under controlled conditions agreed upon by the two governments. The initial agreement between the United States and Mexico was reached late in 1942 but it was not until July of 1951 that Congress enacted Public Law #78 (the Bracero Act) which codified and regulated such matters as recruitment, transportation, working conditions, contractural obligations, etc. This original agreement, which was frequently modified over the years, was to continue until the end of 1964 when, for lack of congressional renewal, the program ceased to exist. Although, as seen later in this report, the number of Mexican workers decreased every year after 1957, there was, nevertheless, a considerable adjustment to be made coincident with the termination of the program. It meant that the work burden of weeding fields, harvesting crops as well as processing canned goods fell to domestic farm workers, and to get these jobs done it was necessary to migrate to where the work was available.

The Texas migrant labor pool, as we have stated, is made up almost entirely of Mexican Americans and although the majority of them are native born American citizens, they continue to hold a strong cultural affinity with Mexico and with customs related to their Latin background. Their search for work in the fields and packing plants requires them to travel far and wide with no certainty of securing employment or what their earning potential will be. They travel as singles, as family units and as members of a crew and all have tasted the bitter pills of discrimination, deprivation and poverty. An average or composite Texas migrant household head can be described as male and married, about 45 years old with two years or less of schooling, who presides over a family of six-plus individuals (about half of whom work) and who is employed 28 weeks a year. His total family income is for the most part below poverty level; he has no opportunity to alter his economic base as he lacks English language competency and possesses no marketable skills since he has been a farm worker all of his life. Year after year this hypothetical person seems to become more "locked-in" to the poverty cycle and less capable of self improvement. This is true since the migrants who have been able to move into non-farm employment have been those who are trainable, employable and adaptable (thus leaving behind the more despairing and difficult cases). This is one of the reasons for increasing frustration on the part of program planners. How to develop a workable training program when there is so little to work with? Where to begin? How to start? And yet, it is precisely this group, the chronically and permanently underprivileged, that is most desperately in need of assistance.

Previous reports have shown the total number of Texas migrants on the stream has decreased at a steady 3-4% a year since 1965. In 1970 the decrease was 7%. Since then it has been impossible to arrive at a statistically supportable figure due to our inability to count the "freewheelers" so the Department of Labor now draws comparisons based on the total "man-months" of seasonal work available. For the years 1971 and 1972 the decline in man-months of work was 8% each year. The actual job opportunities decreased even more, 10% and 12% respectively, due in part to the fact that more seasonal farm work was being done by local workers and students. We recognize, therefore, the almost intolerable situation of an increasing labor pool and a decreasing number of jobs; decreasing yearly earnings and an increasing cost of living. Add to this the unpredictability of weather, crop yield, market demand and local labor availability and the picture becomes pretty bleak indeed. So, even with a well planned work season backed up with firm job referrals, there is no real guarantee that the migrant will find the earnings for which he traveled so far and which he so critically needs. To correct this unfair and unrealistic situation is the thrust of all migrant oriented programs, regardless of their area of interest or their manner of approach. Program aid and guidance attempts to establish this elusive guarantee which, when combined with the migrant's desire to work and earn his way, would provide an environment of better economic security.

As recently as the post Bracero days of eight years ago the migrants seemed to get by somehow, even at the bottom of the economic ladder. At least not much was heard from them since being at the bottom rung was an accepted fact of life for them. That has changed now. The migrant and his family cannot confront this situation alone any longer despite some improvement in wages; he is being heard from and others are speaking out for him. Now that a national awareness exists, we know that there is little opportunity for an illiterate person who has not mastered a skill and speaks little or no English. Now that the challenge has been posted, we must strive to develop and implement a set of manpower policies to expand job opportunities and improve the living conditions of our migrant workers. This important human resource cannot be denied help.

TEXAS AGRICULTURE AND MIGRANT LABOR

On the national scene, as well as in Texas, agriculture was very good for 1972 — abundantly good. Two notable exceptions were the multi-million dollar destructive caper of Hurricane Agnes as she swept through the Appalachian region and the disastrous once-in-a-century flood in Rapid City, S. D., both occurring during the month of June. The dread of Agnes as a hurricane became secondary to the havoc caused by the endless days of torrential rain which resulted in extensive property damage and widespread crop losses. Although these areas were unable to contribute statistically, nevertheless many national production and crop records were set and the word "export" was to be voiced with enthusiasm from coast to coast. A whole host of benevolent circumstances, not the least of which was generally good weather, combined to make 1972 an outstanding year for agriculture. The frosting on the cake was the excellent sales that were registered in the foreign markets. The nation and Texas have always been active in exporting agricultural commodities but this last year was extraordinary for the both of them in its large volume of business. Some of the figures shown in this section have come from the USDA's Statistical Reporting Service whose data gathering is based on the federal fiscal year but regardless of the time span considered the reader will find the figures very impressive. Particularly in the case of Texas whose showing for 1971, as we reported last year, was very poor.

Total national crop worth for 1972 reached an all-time record of $19.2 billion dollars, which was over 3 billion better than the previous year and 2.1 billion better than the previous record high of 1947. Led again this year by the number one exporting state, Illinois, the total value of U.S. farm exports set a new record of $8.1 billion compared with $7.8 billion for 1971 and $7.2 billion for 1970. The reader is reminded that these FY figures do not reflect the extraordinary sales to Russia and China during the Fall of 1972. When these figures are known and incorporated into the export total for next year it is predicted to reach the $10 billion mark. The USSR in 1971 bought 3 million tons of grain worth $125 million dollars but in 1972 they made a three year agreement to purchase a total of $750 million which virtually doubles their yearly commitment and places them in second place, behind Japan, among our agriculture customers.

The four leading exporting states (maintaining the same order as in previous years) and their respective contributions were: Illinois with $758 million, Iowa with $620 million, California with $592 million and Texas had $456 million dollars in export trade. The figure shown for Texas amounts to 13.8% of its total crop value destined for foreign consumption, compared with 15.5% for Iowa and an almost unbelievable 25% for Illinois. It is interesting to note that this upturn in exports is the principal reason for soybeans surpassing corn, for the second year in a row, as the number one cash crop of the nation. Last year's soybean crop was worth $4.4 billion, up a healthy 25% over 1971, and as acreage increases are being authorized for 1973 it is doubtful that corn will ever stand in first place again.

Back in 1950, one U.S. farmworker produced enough food and fiber for himself and 15 other people. Two of these other people lived abroad and were supplied by exports from us. By 1971 two decades of change resulted in this same farmworker being able to produce enough for himself and 47 other people — seven of them living abroad. By 1971 the number of farms had shrunk to less than 3 million — about half as many as in 1950. Over this same period of time the number of farmworkers was halved, standing now at just under four and a half million, down from 10 million in 1950, and from the following table we can see that the farmer and his family account for three fourths of the farm working force. Further the table shows that the percentage of hired help on the nation's farms during the year varies from a low of 20% to a little over 30% during the months of peak labor demand. This means that during the months of highest labor need the migrants, local workers and students are all in competition for the jobs represented by this ten-plus percent. Not a very encouraging picture and it becomes less so every year.

WORKERS ON FARMS, NATIONAL AVERAGES
(in thousands)

	1970	1971	1972
TOTAL WORKERS:	4,522.6	4,436.3	4,373.4
Family Members	3,348.1	3,275.1	3,227.7
Hired Workers	1,174.5	1,161.2	1,145.7
TOTAL WORKERS:			
Low Month (Jan.)	3,405.2	3,334.8	3,271.1
High Month (July)	5,473.6	5,347.4	5,234.9
PERCENT HIRED TO TOTAL:			
Average	25.9%	26.2%	26.3%
Low Month (Jan.)	20.1	20.3	20.3
High Month (July)	33.6	33.7	32.8

During this same period new technologies were being applied to farming in an attempt to produce better crops and better profits. The analysis of results and improvements by the farmers themselves indicated where emphasis in money and effort should be placed. More and more farmers are substituting capital for labor to a greater extent than ever before and the trend is expected to accelerate through the 70's. This is borne out by the figures in the table on the following page which shows the change in the disbursement pattern of the farmer's dollar. I am sure that it is difficult to believe that expenditures for fertilizers and soil chemicals could increase more than threefold in twenty years but when one realizes that today 94% of our corn fields, 60% of our wheat and 75% of our cotton plantings receive fertilizer, it is easier to believe. Likewise it is hard to believe that despite a 10% decline in planted acreage and a 60% reduction in labor (as the last line of the table indicates) food and fiber production has risen by fifty percent.

NATIONAL CHANGE IN FARMER'S EXPENDITURE ALLOCATION
FOR PAST TWENTY YEARS

	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970
Power and Machinery	100	115	115	122	130
Fertilizer and Lime	100	141	169	250	353
Other Inputs	100	113	129	145	170
Land	100	102	98	104	107
Labor	100	85	67	55	46

Conditions for last year were almost optimal, one could say "phenomenal" when comparing with the previous year, remembering that 1971 started with a heartbreaking drought that was to last until midyear and then the devastation of wind and flood in the Lower Rio Grande Valley with the September appearance of hurricanes Edith and Fern. Last year almost all areas of the state started with good ground moisture; however, a shortage of early Spring rainfall set back planting in the southern half of the state forcing a substantial amount of dry planting. Moderate to heavy rains in April and May brought things around and crop maturity proceeded normally. The year closed with severe weather in the High Rolling Plains and the Panhandle causing widespread livestock losses and leaving 50% of the cotton crop in that area still unharvested at the end of the year.

The Texas crop production index for the fourteen leading crops stood at 112 for 1972 (ref. 1957-59 = 100) which is 21 points above the index for 1971. Corn and rice were the only major crops that fell short of the 1971 production levels and in both cases it could be attributed to lower yields.

1) Cotton production was 50% above the previous year. As can be seen by the cotton figures on page six this was due to considerably more acreage being planted plus realizing a much superior yield. Cotton, along with cotton products, was still the leading money crop of the state.

2) Sorghum grain (second to cotton in crop value) was to enjoy a 16% production increase over 1971 in spite of harvesting 300,000 acres less. Credit for this comes from a record yield of 61 bushels per acre which is considerably above the 52 bushels for 1971. Sorghum is still the major acreage crop, harvesting a third of a million acres more than cotton, and predictions are that planted acreage in crop year 1973 will increase 10% to about 8,500,000 acres.

3) Wheat production was 44 million bushels, about 12.5 million bushels above 1971 but far short of the 54.4 million in 1970. This 40% increase over the previous year was due to more acreage being planted as the yield per acre, being 22 bushels compared to 21 bushels for 1971, was not an important factor.

Contribution of the Three Principal Crops

	1972	1971	1970	1969	1968
Total dollar value: (in billions)	$1.611	$1.132	$1.261	$1.214	$1.431
Percent contribution:					
Cotton	29%	25%	29%	23%	31%
Sorghum	25%	27%	27%	28%	22%
Rice	9%	11%	9%	8%	10%
Total contribution:	63%	63%	65%	59%	63%

(*note:* in 1972 the sum of these three crops passed $1 billion in value)

Harvested vegetable acreage in 1972 was well above the 249,840 acres harvested the previous year, being almost equal to the 280,400 acres of 1970, and Texas still ranks third after California and Florida in vegetable production and value. The principal areas of vegetable production for the state are the Lower Rio Grande Valley, the High Rolling Plains and the Winter Garden area at the center of the Rio Grande Plains. This is of interest to our intrastate migrant workers since vegetables still require much field labor at harvest time. Use of herbicides continues to reduce the amount of hoeing necessary and the limited use of mechanical diggers are proving to be economical for some harvesting (all of which means fewer jobs) although hand picking assures better market acceptability.

The following table shows vividly what is occurring with the total migrant work force traveling within the state. The reader's attention is called to the three mid-summer months which have shown a uniform demand until 1971 when labor needs suffered a sharp drop. It was thought that this was the result of the basically poor year in agriculture as well as the reduction in harvested acreage, but was it? This last year was blessed with good weather and planted acreage equivalent to 1970, yet the labor needs for our intrastate migrants were 20% less. Although a part of last year's decrease in intrastate migrant movement was because of an increase in the number of migrant families settling out in the various work areas and thus becoming "local" and not "migrant" labor, nevertheless the principal reason for the decrease is the simple fact that agricultural work is inexorably diminishing.

STATEWIDE SEASONAL EMPLOYMENT — INTRASTATE MIGRANTS
(thousands)

Year	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
1968	1.3	2.2	9.5	19.4	13.9	6.4	5.9	5.8	12.0
1969	1.5	2.6	10.0	20.3	14.5	4.3	5.0	4.4	7.3
1970	2.0	2.1	7.0	19.4	14.6	3.5	1.5	2.7	5.6
1971	1.5	1.4	6.2	17.7	12.6	3.6	1.2	1.6	2.5
1972	1.2	1.4	4.1	16.7	11.8	2.1	1.2	1.6	4.8

Texas Employment Commission

The details in the next table on seasonal job placements in Texas agriculture by the Texas Employment Commission show that actual placements continue to decline precipitously although total seasonal employment estimates point to a much more moderate decrease.

Seasonal Farm Job Placement in Texas

	1972	1970	1968
Total Placements	150,000	195,600	234,000
Average per month	12,510	16,305	19,506
High Month	32,441 June	28,695 Aug.	38,865 June
Low month	3,103 Jan.	5,290 Sept.	7,607 July

For the migrant farmworker the principal problem is getting a job, finding employment, and the next worry is how much work will the job actually produce. The amount of work determines the amount of earnings and work records are kept in units of man-months; so if jobs are more scarce and man-month working totals are down the migrant's chance of maintaining earnings is slim indeed. The following figures from the Department of Labor for the last decade, comparing national and Texas totals, clearly illustrates the point.

A — Man-Months of Seasonal Farm Labor; U.S. and Texas
(in thousands)

	1960	1965	1970	1971	% change 11 years
U.S.	9,151	8.079	6,604	6,423	−30%
Texas	2,216	1,385	1,066	997	−55%

B — Man Months of Migratory Farm Labor: U.S. and Texas
(in thousands)

	1960	1965	1970	1971	% change 11 years
U.S.	1,675	1,529	1,181	1,096	−34%
Texas	268	130	63	51	−81%

During the period of 1960 to 1965 the decline in man-months of work parallels the decline in foreign contract workers under the bracero program (see Table I in the following section) as less labor was being imported. However, since 1965 the work loss has been absorbed by our local and migrant workers while the total labor force was increasing. Further, the figures show that the rate of decrease in the use of farm labor in Texas has been faster than the national rate and it was due almost entirely to cotton mechanization. Two decades ago cotton was the most labor intensive crop in the nation and Texas was its biggest producer. So it follows that when mechanization and the use of herbicides virtually eliminated cotton chopping and hand harvesting, the effect on the worker demand in Texas was much more pronounced than in any other region; thus the disproportionate percentage change between the nation and our state. A final observation, almost with tongue in cheek, is that the down trend in labor needs seems to be leveling off enroute to reaching a base minimum.

The following table on cotton production illustrates the large range of fluctuation that can take place in the important crop from year to year. Many things can happen between "acres planted" and "bales" harvested, and although having little effect on migrant workers at the present time the effect on the economy of the state is of great importance. The 4 million bales produced in 1972 was equal to almost one third of the entire national production.

TEXAS COTTON

Year	Acres Planted	Harvested	Yield	Bales	% Change Prev. Year
1964	6,225,000	5,675,000	348	4,123,000	
1965	5,850,000	5,565,000	402	4,668,000	+11.3
1966	4,265,000	3,968,000	385	3,182,000	−32.
1967	3,960,000	3,525,000	376	2,767,000	−11.
1968	4,450,000	4,125,000	404	3,475,000	+23.
1969	5,175,000	4,675,000	305	2,862,300	−17.5
1970	5,251,800	4,851,000	335	3,247,000	+13.
1971	5,230,700	4,700,000	263	2,579,000	−20.
1972	5,570,000	5,150,000	377	4,050,000	+56.8

Statistical Reporting Service

Livestock is the biggest agri earner in the state, contributing over $2 billion, or two-thirds, of the total receipts from farm and ranch. At present Texas is second among cattle producing states, whereas ten years ago it ranked fifth. Cattle on feed in 1972 averaged 1.8 million head, six times the number of decade ago, and at mid-year we surpassed Iowa, the traditional leader, in total feed lot population. This continued increase of cattle on feed explains why sorghum continues to strengthen its position in crop ranking, showing a 50% increase in ten years. The cattle industry has brought several meat packing plants to the High Rolling Plains which created many jobs but the migrant workers, unfortunately, have received little benefit from this.

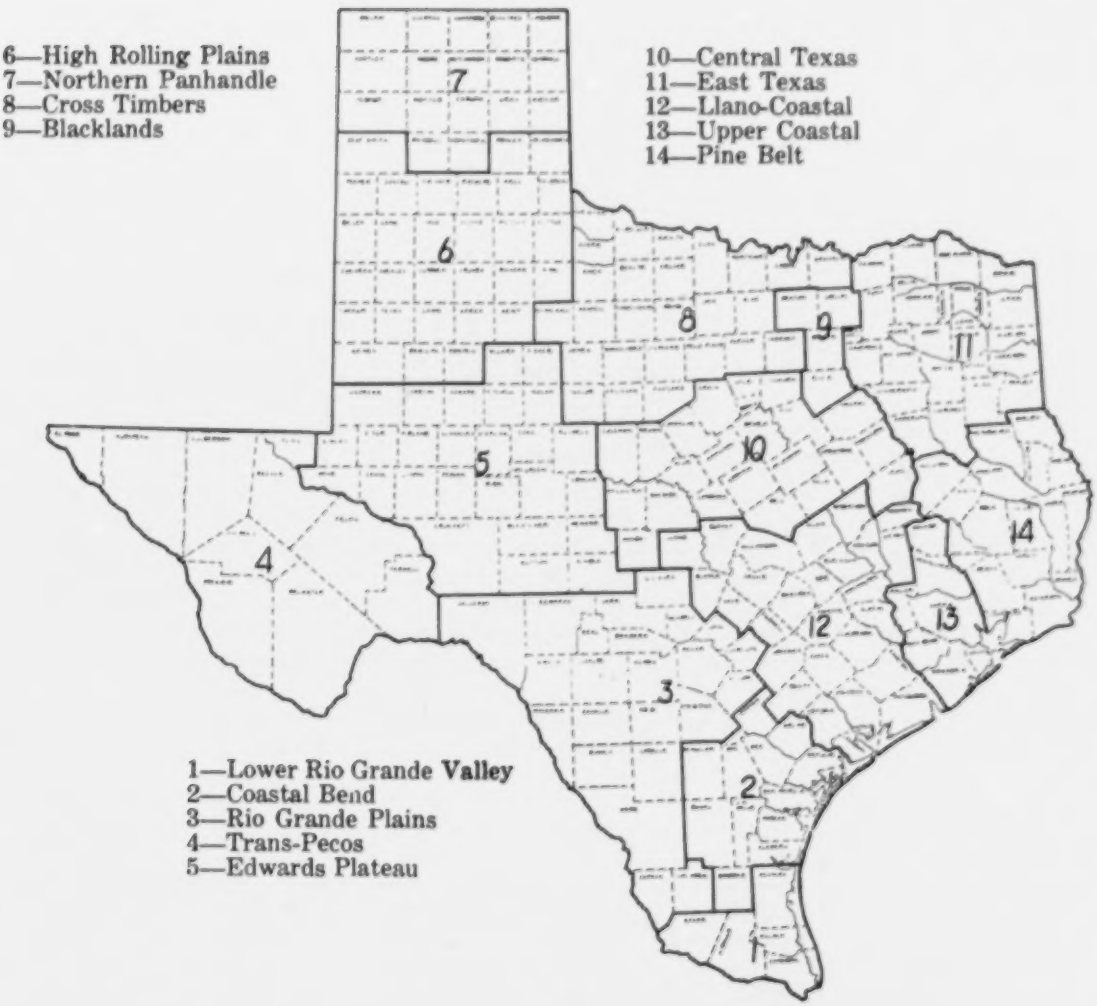
Looking at the Texas economy as a whole it appears robust and healthy after an excellent year in agriculture and an excellent increase in gross product. The curve of population growth remains steady, tourism and related activities continue to make their contribution (22,891,000 visitors spent $2.2 billion — a record year) and, as has been mentioned, our agricultural export picture was especially bright. Texas led in rice and cotton exports with 27% and 26% respectively of the national totals that went into foreign trade. The cane sugar industry in Texas has been revived with the formation of the Rio Grande Valley Sugar Growers, Inc., which holds a USDA allotment for 100,000 tons of sugar to be produced from 26,000 acres and the construction of a $26 million mill to begin grinding in November of 1973. The mill, located on the line between Hidalgo and Cameron counties near the town of Santa Rosa, will offer several hundred jobs during the harvest and grinding season but the need for field labor is yet unknown since present plans are to use mechanical cane cutters. This diversification in the Lower Valley's agricultural economy is most welcome.

However, as could be expected, the principal economic growth in the state came from industry, non-agri business, and the Texas Industrial Commission reports increasing numbers of out-of-state industries locating here and indications are that the trend will continue. The state will be offering a comprehensive "start up" training program to prepare and have ready a trained work force for new industries in accord with the company's needs. This program is in keeping with vocational training for better paying jobs and also to keep abreast of the trends in the labor force as shown below.

TEXAS LABOR FORCE TRENDS
(annual averages)

	1960	1965	1970	1972	% change 1960-72
Civilian Labor Force	3,600,900	3,987,600	4,690,000	4,936,600	+37.0
Unemployed	189,700	168,400	167,800	176,800	−6.2
% Unemployed	5.3	4.2	3.6	3.6	—
Total Employment	3,410,500	3,815,600	4,519,900	4,756,500	+39.5
Emp. in Agriculture	343,000	330,100	294,800	281,300	−18.0
Emp. in Nonagri. Industry	3,067,500	3,485,500	4,224,200	4,475,200	+46.0

Texas Agricultural Zones



ALIEN LABOR AND IMMIGRATION

A. ALIEN LABOR:

A review study of alien labor and immigration are being included in this section as the two subjects are not only interrelated but both play an important role in the historic development of our present day migrant farm worker. Any foreign born worker is, by definition, an "alien" and for him to be working in the United States requires that he must have immigrated. Undoubtedly there are many factors involved in the emigrants' decision to leave home and come to this country but basic among them is the search for better earnings and the desire for a better life. Prior to the 1880's the policy of the U.S. government was one of encouragement to immigrants as it was obvious that to maintain America's growth pattern would require increasing numbers of newcomers to push back the frontiers, labor in the fields and mines, and to work in industry. Apart from the settlers who came over of their own volition, large numbers of unskilled peasant workers from Western Europe were recruited and brought over as contract workers. The early labor dealers used many and varied inducements to entice workers to sail for this land of opportunity and they were so successful in their recruiting that they were able to glut the labor market. This was a favorable situation for the labor consumers as keen job competition and worker insecurity made it possible to hold wages down to bare subsistence. In those days this was not considered as labor exploitation, it was just good business. Before long it became evident to the labor recruiters that Asia offered a source of unlimited labor willing to work for even lower wages than the Europeans. Opening the door to "coolie" labor from the Far East precipitated such an intolerable situation that legislation was finally required to correct it.

Asian contract workers became so numerous that three-fourths of the labor in U.S. fields was being done by Chinese and this caused much alarm over the uncontrolled entry of floods of oriental "foreigners." Three events were to take place in rapid succession; passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882; the introduction of selective qualifications for entry to bar "criminals, immoral persons and paupers;" and the enactment of the Alien Contract Labor Law of 1885 to halt the importation of cheap labor into this country. This is considered the beginning of statutory restrictions on labor importations and controls on worldwide immigration.

A quarter of a century after the Exclusion Act the principle of exclusion was broadened by barring absolutely all immigration from the Orient, and a decade was to pass with no further immigration legislation. Then, in February of 1917, responding to public concern over the arrival of thousands of persons fleeing the European scene during World War I, Congress enacted legislation that became our first basic immigration law. The Labor Act of 1917 codified previous restrictive measures, defined the different categories of excludable aliens, detailed the requirements for the inspection of arriving immigrants and listed the provisions under which contract workers and other inadmissible aliens could be admitted on a temporary basis. Further, this Act of 1917 delineated for the first time the procedures to be followed for the admittance of skilled and professional workers. Until the advent of the 20's, immigration regulations had been definitive in terms of kind and quality of immigrants and

not concerned with quantity, but the postwar rush of people leaving a devastated Europe required some immediate legislative action; thus, the Emergency Quota Act of 1921 came into being. This was followed closely by the Immigration Act of 1924 that introduced the "national origin" concept into immigration restrictions which was to remain basic to the Immigration and Naturalization Service control system until the general overhauling of the law in 1965.

In April of 1943 the Chinese exclusion laws were repealed and these people were then included in the quota system (as were the Filipinos and natives of India) and regulations were introduced in an effort to ameliorate the wartime manpower shortage which by that time had become acute. Under the terms of this special legislation, unskilled Mexican and West Indian farm workers began entering the country for temporary employment in agriculture and the word "bracero," describing these people, became a part of the English language.

This temporary legislation expired in December of 1947 on a note of urgency from the Mexican government suggesting that the United States develop and enact specific laws for the protection of the braceros against abuses and irregularities during their stay in this country and also to regulate the importation of temporary farm labor. During this period of negotiations between the two governments it was necessary to supply growers and farmers with emergency field workers so the Department of Labor and the I&NS, in agreement with the Mexican authorities, set up recruiting centers in different parts of Mexico. Concurrently, a joint commission from the two countries was named to study the problems of the bracero program and the culmination of its efforts was the enactment in July of 1951 of Public Law 78, the Bracero Act.

Table I

Foreign Workers Admitted for Temporary Employment in U.S. Agriculture
By Year and Nationality

Year	Total	Mexican	B.W.I.'s	Canadians	Oriental
1948	44,916	35,345	3,671	5,900	
1951	203,640	192,000	9,040	2,600	
1954	320,737	309,033	4,704	7,000	
1957	452,205	436,049	8,171	7,300	685
1960	334,729	315,846	9,810	8,200	863
1963	209,218	186,865	12,930	8,500	923
1964	200,022	177,736	14,361	7,900	25
1965	25,871	20,284	10,917	4,670	0
1966	23,524	8,647	11,194	3,683	0
1967	23,603	6,125	13,578	3,900	0
1968	13,323	0	10,723	2,600	0
1969	15,830	0	13,530	2,300	0
1970	17,474	0	15,470	2,004	0
1971	13,684	0	12,143	1,541	0

Farm Labor Development, U.S. Department of Labor

The Bracero Program, which was designed to control wages, working conditions and transportation of Mexican nationals who came across the border to work in our fields was to endure for fourteen years before it officially expired in December of 1964 when Congress declined to renew it. However, Mexican laborers nevertheless continued to be admitted for three more years under the stipulations of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 (McCarran-Walter Act) and of Public Law 141 which was passed the same year. The phase-out of the Bracero Program with Mexico ended in 1968, but British East Indians and Canadians continued to enter the U.S. for temporary farm work as Table I shows.

The use of foreign contract workers has remained relatively steady since 1968 and the proportion of B.W.I.'s to Canadians remains quite constant in numbers as well as in the amount of work performed. Looking toward the future needs for alien labor the Department of Agriculture predicts that the need will remain below 50,000 man-months per year (see Table II) which is considerably less than the 1,750,000 man-months of foreign labor consumption that was reached in 1959 at the peak of the Bracero Program.

Table II

Estimated Man-Months of Employment of Foreign Contract Workers
Thousands of man-months

Year	Total	Mexicans	B.W.I.'s	Canadians
1965	103.6	26.5	72.0	5.1
1966	59.8	12.3	44.0	3.6
1967	57.7	7.1	46.7	3.8
1968	40.7	.0	39.1	1.6
1969	44.0	.0	42.2	1.8
1970	48.4	.0	42.6	5.8
1971	38.4	.0	35.3	3.1

B. IMMIGRATION:

Search for a better life and freedom from oppression were the principal motives which brought immigrants to the shores of the New World. At the time of the Colonies newcomers, regardless of origin, were welcomed to participate in this new country's growth and its opportunities. By the time of our first national census in 1790 when 3,250,000 people were counted, a nationality pattern began to emerge and by the beginning of the 20th century the United States very literally had someone from everywhere woven into its population tapestry. The one-way people flow was to continue uncontrolled for an entire century after the birth of the Republic and it was not until the 1880's (as was stated in part A of this section) that the government began to legislate in this very important area of immigration.

The spiraling increases in the number of people entering the U.S. with the intention of becoming permanent residents and citizens gave vivid reason for the need of statutory controls to prevent a chaotic inundation of this fledgling country. When statistics reveal that between 1820 and 1880 (sixty years) 10 million aliens entered this country whereas between 1880 and 1910 (only thirty years) the comparable figure was 23 million, then the urgency for legislative action is obvious. This alarming acceleration of new arrivals brought about the quota controls of 1921, to be followed by the Immigration Act of 1924 which was later replaced, after frequent amendments and modifications, by a completely new legislative Act in 1952.

The Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 was by far the most comprehensive document on immigration matters to be drawn up thus far in U.S. history. Regulations were written concerning non-quota immigrants, preferences were granted to skilled or professional workers and the immigration policies pertaining to families of American citizens as well as families of permanent resident aliens were established. This Act also defined and set up guidelines for the non-immigrant classes who would be permitted temporary admission. Although far reaching in many respects the Act placed no quota restrictions on the Western Hemisphere and immigration movement from that area continued without governmental controls for more than a decade. This era ended in 1965 when Congress, after much debate, passed a new immigration law fixing a numerical limit of 120,000 persons yearly on the entire hemisphere. Excluded from this figure are the parents, spouses and under age children of U.S. citizens. The Act established no specific quotas for individual countries but it was stipulated that no country would be allowed more than 40,000 emigrants per year.

The section of the 1965 law which has a direct effect on our Texas farm worker is that which specifies that the Secretary of Labor must "certify" all permanent visa applications before the consular service can issue such a visa. The purpose of this requirement is to deny visas to unskilled or common laborers (who would be in competition with our unskilled farm workers) since the law requires that the Secretary certify that: 1) there are insufficient workers who are "able, willing and qualified" available for the work that is sought, and 2) the employment of such aliens will not "adversely affect" the wages or working conditions of U.S. workers similarly employed.

Those aliens who seek entry into this country for the purpose of employment are divided by the Department of Labor into three general occupational groups and every prospective immigrant must fall into one of these categories:

> Schedule A — Professional fields in short supply in the U.S. and which are certified in advance (physicians, engineers, chemists, etc.). No job offer or individual review by the Department of Labor is required.
>
> Schedule B — Low skilled occupations where a U.S. labor supply exists (busboys, farm workers, cook's helpers, janitors, etc.). It is extremely rare that applicants are issued a certification.

Schedule C — Professionals not in Schedule A and semi-professional and skilled workers who are generally in short supply (chefs, practical nurses, welders, draftsmen, machinists, etc.). No job offer is required BUT the Department of Labor will review each individual case before granting certification.

Under the term of the law the visa applicant must obtain three official approvals; the Department of State (U.S. Consular Service), the Department of Justice (I&NS) and the Department of Labor (Office of Certification). If certification is granted the application is returned to the consular office for final processing which, depending on the number of pending applications, might require many months. In recent years the application backlog has been diminishing steadily due to the dramatic decline in the Schedule B applications since members of this group are now aware of the extremely slim chances for certification, they simply do not apply. How many of these persons take the illegal route to "immigrate" is impossible to say but most of the illegals apprehended (see part D of this section) are of this unskilled category.

The following Table III reveals that, with the exception of 1968*, the total of Western Hemisphere immigration has remained steady since the quota limitations went into effect. However, different areas show unmistakable trends with Mexico constantly on the increase while others hold constant or decline.

TABLE III

Immigrants Admitted from the Western Hemisphere, 1964-72

Year Ending June 30	Total	Canada	Mexico	Central America	Caribbean	South America
1964	143,603	38,074	32,967	11,500	29,960	31,102
1965	157,264	38,327	37,969	12,423	37,583	30,962
1966	152,819	28,358	45,163	9,658	43,804	25,836
1967	156,312	23,442	42,371	8,709	65,273	16,517
1968	249,814	27,662	43,563	10,862	145,751*	21,976
1969	156,220	18,582	44,623	9,692	59,395	23,928
1970	150,992	13,804	44,469	9,343	61,403	21,973
1971	160,733	13,128	50,103	8,626	68,176	20,700
1972	163,734	10,776	64,040	8,125	61,434	19,359

Referring to the chart of percentage trends on the following page and looking at the three areas that produce the most immigrants it is interesting to note the shift in the percent-of-total and the overall increase in share-of-total. In less than a decade these three contiguous areas have increased their share by more than ten percent.

Percentage Trends of Principal Western Hemisphere Immigrating Areas

Year	Canada	Mexico	Caribbean	% of Total
1964	27%	23%	21%	71%
1966	19%	29%	28%	76%
1969	12%	29%	38%	79%
1970	9%	30%	40%	79%
1971	8%	31%	42%	81%
1972	6%	39%	37%	82%

The increases in the number of immigrants from Mexico and the Caribbean receiving permanent visas are mostly in the category of live-in domestic servants in Schedule B. The Secretary of Labor can certify these applicants without fear of violating the "able and willing" requirement of the law as it seems that there are not sufficent local citizen workers "willing" to take household work so alien workers can be legally admitted to fill these jobs.

Looking at worldwide immigration, which amounts to 350-400,000 persons/year, it is interesting to classify them into occupational groups as has been done in the following Table IV and to speculate on whether or not these newcomers are potential job competitors who might displace U.S. citizen

Table IV

Immigrants Admitted and Major Occupation Group, Worldwide

	1968	1970	1972
MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP:			
Professional, Technical and kindred	48,753	46,151	48,887
Farmers and Farm Managers	2,727	3,839	161
Managers, Officials and Owners	9,436	5,829	7,748
Clerical, Sales and kindred	29,090	16,517	14,921
Craftsmen, Foremen	28,926	28,192	18,944
Operative and kindred	27,893	18,430	19,019
Private Household Workers	25,419	10,479	10,498
Other Service Workers	16,411	9,272	15,403
Farm Laborers and Foremen	6,002	4,332	6,403
Laborers, except farm and mine	14,374	14,148	15,257
Housewives, Children and others with no occupation	245,417	216,137	227,444
U.S.I.& N.S.	454,448*	373,326	384,685

workers. It is somewhat of a relief to find that the effect of these entries is more benign than would be expected since over fifty percent of them fall in the category of "housewives, children and other with no occupation" and another twelve percent are professional people. Percentagewise, no drastic difference occurs in the occupational make up of new immigrants from year to year and this job mix must be satisfactory to the I&NS and Congress otherwise something would have been done about it before now.

*This unusually high figure for the Caribbean area resulted from the thousands of Cubans formalizing their immigration status in accord with PL 89-732 which became effective in November of 1966. During the years prior to this date the majority of Cuban refugees were "paroled" into the U.S. which meant that they could remain in the country but could not work or pursue a profession. Thus when Congress enacted legislation to facilitate their legal immigration many were quick to apply for permanent resident visas or for citizenship.

C. COMMUTERS:

In part, some of the difficulty with understanding the commuter problem, particularly here in Texas, lies in the difference between the popular conception of a commuter in the minds of non-border people, and the technical, legal definition.

In general, the public regards anyone "living over there and working over here" as a commuter since they cross back and forth over the border. However, in the legal sense, only *aliens* living in Mexico are commuters. United States citizens living in Mexico are not, nor are aliens living and working in the U.S. This situation is further compounded by the fact that most alien commuters have family or friends over here and may themselves reside occasionally on this side of the border. It is not infrequent that aliens give U.S. addresses, where they are known or have family contacts, to their employers as reference and yet they do not actually live at the given address. Hence, a worker employed in the U.S. can appear to be a commuter and not actually be one, and vice versa.

To the border population "commuter" and "commuter status" are household words, but to the rest of the nation the words have had little significance until recently. However, with the civil rights activities, the War on Poverty and the publication by the media of investigations by the Subcommittee on Migrant Labor the border area has come under intense national scrutiny and today much more is known about this depressed area and its problems, one of which is the commuter situation.

Commuting is made possible by the circumstance that the I&NS considers an alien with a permanent resident visa who returns from work to his home across the border as "temporarily abandoning U.S. soil" and therefore reserves the right to return again the next day. Of course, the commuter, like all other immigrants must have applied for and been granted a permanent visa in accordance with the regulations of the Immigration and Nationality Act which was discussed in the previous section. The alien applicant is then issued a registration receipt card, Form I-151, which is known as a "green card" (referring to the color of the original I-151 cards) and is then privileged to live and work anywhere he pleases within the borders of the United States. The commuter, as defined by the Board of Immigration Appeals, is then, "An alien admitted to the U.S. for permanent residence and although living in a

foreign country is permitted to enter the U.S. as a resident alien to work or seek work," and acquires commuter status. To maintain this status he must engage in work that is permanent and stable, and he is deemed to have lost this status if he is out of work for six months. However, in the case of commuting agri workers whose work is seasonal and intermittent, the permanent and stable requirement is seldom enforced; and yet, paradoxically, it is this group of unskilled workers that causes Texas and her farm workers so much concern in the border areas. An additional reason for concern is that Texas, with only 28% of the registered Mexican green card holders (compared to California with 53%), has half of the total border commuters.

Although many persons of our nation are but recently becoming acquainted with the border commuters, the fact is that people have commuted to jobs across both borders since the time the boundaries were first established. Formerly commuters were considered as "temporary visitors for business" so were free to come over daily to their jobs, but an amendment to the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1924 changed that by stipulating that persons from the Western Hemisphere countries would henceforth be classified as immigrants and be required to obtain an immigrant visa. As an immigrant, the alien would need a visa every working day. Since this was impossible the authorities devised a "border crossing ID card" to permit the continued entry of Mexican and Canadian jobholders who had for years been coming over as non-immigrants. In reality, there is no mention of commuter status in the immigration statutes and although there has never been any official acceptance by Congress of this commuter status "expediency," nevertheless there must be a tacit approval as it has been going on for over forty years.

In accordance with the Alien Address Regulation, each year during the month of January, all aliens are required to register at the nearest post office. In 1972 total alien registrants amounted to 4.4 million of which 3.9 million (88%) were green carders of all nationalities. There were 781,700 Mexicans, 458,000 Cubans and 383,900 Canadians. The figure for Mexicans is approximately a 50,000 increase over 1971 and almost all of which came over as "immediate relatives" since the Department of Labor grants almost no certifications except to professional and technical applicants. Of the Cuban total 304,000 of them were permanent residents leaving about 150,000 at this late date, who have yet to formalize their immigration status.

In recent years the I&NS has carried out five different commuter counts. One set of results of a typical count shows a total of 53,300 commuters of which 42,600 were in the southwest region and of these 20,300 (almost 50%) were in Texas. The variation in these alien commuter counts along the border with Mexico was from a high of 42,600 to a low of 36,200 and with a general average of 39,000. The I&NS makes no attempt to maintain up-to-date statistics on commuters as their number is a constantly changing variable which depends on job opportunities, the time of the year, the day of the week and the personal economy of the individual. For instance, during the migrant season many commuters go "on stream" for several months and would not be counted and if a border count is taken the day after a Mexican holiday a low tally would be certain.

The following table is repeated from last year for the purpose of illustrating the wide difference in the number of persons involved in selected work groups at selected points along the border.

Table V

Percentage of Total Commuter Workers by Selected Occupations

	Agri.	Sales & Service	Industry	Bldg. Trade
	(entire Mexican border)			
December 1967	42%	33%	17%	8%
October 1971	39%	28%	22%	11%
	(by states for the October 1971 count)			
California	54%	26%	25%	15%
Arizona	29%	7%	5%	5%
Texas	17%	67%	70%	80%
	(variation on the Texas border for the October 1971 count)			
El Paso to Presidio	66%	65%	73%	77%
Del Rio to Laredo	20%	26%	16%	14%
Roma to Brownsville	14%	9%	11%	9%

The percentage of commuters in the occupational mix for the entire border has varied little between these two counts. However, when information for the three adjoining states is examined it shows that California uses three times as many agriculture commuters as does Texas, that Texas uses three times as many industry workers as California and that Texas has four times as many commuters in the building trades as do California and Arizona together. The participation of the three states in the over-all commuter movement is: Texas = 50%, California = 37% and Arizona = 13%. Although the Texas job mix changes drastically from El Paso to Brownsville it is El Paso that dominates the statistics in all of the occupational groups due to the fact that two-thirds of all of the commuters entering Texas cross at that point. It should be pointed out that job competition and job displacement are the reasons for the apparent large difference between California and Texas in the use of agriculture commuters. Although both states grow labor intense crops in their border areas, Texas has a large domestic labor pool handy whereas California does not and therefore must rely heavily on commuters.

With this brief background on commuters one quickly deduces that the commuter program, as it operates at present, is fraught with problems and frustrations and that an over-all solution which would be acceptable to all concerned is almost impossible to design. Until now a total border solution

has been sought at the national level but so far any effective legislation has proved elusive. Considering the different local, regional and national labor aspects and the variation in occupational groups, this Commission believes that the matter should be considered on a "local option" basis. Perhaps a congressional resolution establishing somewhat flexible guidelines would be useful but regulations and their enforcement should be vested in local authorities and in accordance with local and seasonal needs. Using this approach economic security would hopefully improve by preventing further erosion of jobs that should be held by tax-paying workers.

The principal difficulty in writing total border legislation, apart from the local discrepancies already mentioned, is finding answers to a number of arguments that are hard to reconcile or to refute. Among those in favor of commuters:

1) The bulk of the commuter's income is spent over here which is a boon for retail sales — the border's biggest "industry."
2) If the commuter were forced to do what he is privileged to do (become a permanent resident) the border cities would be unable to provide housing and municipal services to an instant population growth of 250,000 made up of 40,000 alien and 18,000 citizen commuters *and* their respective families.
3) No need for worry as the "certification" requirement of the Department of Labor prevents the commuters from becoming a problem.
4) If entry of legal aliens (commuters) is cut back or prohibited, it would only serve to increase the number of illegal aliens (wetbacks) and add to the burden of the I&NS and the Border Patrol.
5) Time and precedent awards the alien commuter certain "acquired rights" that Mexican authorities think should not be ignored. It would not be good business to offend one of the U.S.'s best customers by forcing some of its citizens to emigrate or take their jobs away.

Some arguments opposed to commuters:

1) The U.S. cities on the Mexican border have the highest unemployment rate and the lowest median earnings in the entire nation and by eventually eliminating commuters opportunities for work would improve and so would wages.
2) Commuters, for whom almost any wage is a good wage, perpetuate the depressed border economy and the residents on this side who are in job competition with them are economically discriminated against.
3) Since the commuter cannot meet the residency requirements he has no intention of becoming a citizen (the supposed end purpose of immigration) hence his green card in reality is merely an alien working permit.
4) The commuter makes no contribution toward the many services and guarantees that he encounters over here. He shares in the advantages but not in the cost.
5) The farm worker commuter can legally compete for work with the U.S. migrant while on the stream and continue to do so back at home base during winter harvest.
6) Danger of retaliation from the Mexican government is overstressed. During the past six years the U.S.'s cooperation with the Border Industrialization Program has created over 45,000 jobs in border cities of Mexico, so why shouldn't the jobs over here held by aliens be returned to U.S. citizens?

For several years intensive and emotional debate concerning commuters has taken place on Capitol Hill with no concrete results to show for the effort. Possibly the most compelling reason for the lack of progress is the lack of a mutually acceptable direction that legislation should take. Some possible suggestions and recommendations are:

A. Terminate the present system on a fixed date (three to five years hence allowing adequate time to permit the commuters to establish themselves in the U.S.) and to prohibit the issuance of new commuter cards. Provide federal grants-in-aid to the border communities to prepare themselves for the flood of permanent residents.

   Note: a) the cost could amount to hundreds of millions of dollars with little chance of approval by other than border state lawmakers.

   b) there is no equitable plan to schedule the "moving over" process, hence most all commuters would wait until the deadline causing catastrophic confusion.

   c) there is no way to project real population growth as there is no way to determine who will come over and whether or not they will remain in the border area with the same job or go job seeking in the nation's interior.

B. Require that all commuters who acquired their status prior to 1965 be reprocessed for certification and continue to undergo "re-certification" periodically. If the commuter fears not being recertified he may decide to establish his residence in the U.S. rather than risk losing his commuter status and his job.

   Note: reaction to this approach has been generally favorable; however, it does not deal with the citizen commuter who needs no certification and it does discriminate against the agriculture commuter.

C. In addition to the re-certification approach of B) design a new "non-immigrant" permit and ID card (to replace the Form I-151) to be issued for a specific time and a specific type of work. Essentially this would be a temporary work permit not tied to immigration and would only be granted if no U.S. workers were available.

   Note: a) at first glance this appears to be a good idea but it could cause an avalanche of paper work to take care of the "job hoppers" and the seasonal agriculture workers.

   b) there would be bureaucratic overlapping between the I&NS and whatever new bureau took over the responsibility.

   c) since it involves work and the availability of U.S. workers it would still require D. of L. certification so the scheme would tend to become even more cumbersome than the present system.

D. Leave the present system alone but eliminate future acquisition of new commuter status. If no new immigrants are allowed to join the commuter ranks this group will gradually decrease by attrition, job loss and/or moving to the U.S.

   Note: a) despite a dearth of certifications for the unskilled worker little decline is noted in the commuter population.

   b) U.S. citizen commuters (all of Mexican American background and who amount to one-third of the commuter total) would not be affected.

E. Immediate termination of the present system and revoking commuter status.

   Note: a) this would precipitate coming to grips with the commuter situation, like it or not, but is the border prepared?

   b) consider unequal social and economic disruptions on different areas, i.e. imagine the impact on worker and industry in El Paso if commuters decided NOT to become residents and imagine the impact on housing, schools and municipal services, etc. if the commuters DID become residents to save their jobs.

D. ILLEGAL ENTRANTS:

During the past year the U.S. government apprehended and expelled a total of 506,000 illegal immigrants, an increase of 20% over the previous year, and the increase is attributed principally to an increase of 82,000 in the number of Mexicans located. What for many years was a trickle of foreigners sneaking into the United States has now become a rising flood that shows no signs of cresting much less subsiding. Unlawful crossing of the Mexican border in search of work causes difficulties throughout the nation but in the border states where the impact of the "wetback" is first felt, the problems are obviously more severe. From the border point of view, and particularly that of our migrant farm workers, the illegal entry of Mexican nationals is potentially the most ruinous of all border problems, and it is getting worse.

Of the 506,000 apprehensions (86,000 more than in 1971) 430,000 were Mexicans, some being expelled a half dozen times or more. The following figures, dating from the last year of the Bracero Program, show with alarming clarity the trend in numerical increases of illegal entrants from below the Rio Grande. In 1969 Mexican aliens made up 72% of the total deported and by last year that percentage had increased to 85%.

1964 — 42,000	1970 — 277,000
1968 — 151,700	1971 — 348,000
1969 — 201,000	1972 — 430,000

Impelled by the lack of local employment, insufficient earnings and the lure of the legendary high-pay jobs in the U.S., Mexican workers have circumvented the immigration laws since the day they were first promulgated more than a half century ago. These laws closing the border to contract and unskilled labor virtually shut out the Mexican "campesino" who then took the illegal route to achieve his end. The root cause that motivates thousands of Mexicans to swarm across the border is principally economic, and is manifest in the great disparity in the standards of living in the two countries. The situation is further aggravated by a continuing population explosion that yearly adds a half million Mexican youths to the labor market where available new jobs are insufficient to meet the demand. Like the "campesino" and the unskilled worker many of these young people and students see their future to the north and thus contribute to the population crunch in the border areas. The result of this northerly travel pattern and a comparison of the population growth of the "twin" U.S. cities for the last decade is shown in Table VI on the following page.

The resultant effect on Mexican border cities has been one of overburdened services and facilities; an unemployment situation that in some seasons reaches 25% of the able bodied work force; and, the creation of crowded "barrios" where despair is the common denominator of the people. From these circumstances are born the smugglers and their clients, the border jumpers and the repeaters, all desperately trying to improve their lot and with full knowledge that what they plan to do is illegal. The important fact that perpetuates this onerous situation is that neither the illegal alien nor the employer who hires him has anything to lose if the worker is caught; after routine processing the alien is returned to Mexico and that is about the extent of it. This should be the area of principal concern for our legislators, this is where new laws are necessary to plug the border dike.

Table VI

Numerical and Percentage Population Growths in Border Cities
(1960-1970)

City	1960	1970	% Increase
Brownsville	48,040	52,522	9%
Matamoros	143,043	182,887	28%
McAllen	32,728	37,636	15%
Reynosa	134,869	143,514	6%
Laredo	60,678	69,024	14%
Nuevo Laredo	96,043	150,922	58%
Eagle Pass	12,094	15,364	26%
Piedras Negras	48,408	65,883	38%
El Paso	276,687	322,261	20%
Cd. Juarez	276,995	436,054	58%
Nogales, Ariz.	7,286	8,946	22%
Nogales, Son.	39,812	52,865	32%
Calexico	7,992	10,625	32%
Mexicali	281,333	390,411	39%
San Diego	573,224	696,769	22%
Tijuana	165,690	102%	

Both the illegal entrant and his American employer feel they are justified in acting outside of the immigration laws. There is work to be done in the U.S. and the alien needs work so he feels no compunction in illicitly crossing the line and the employer rationalizes that since he cannot get local domestic help for the wages he is able to pay then he should be allowed to work "wetbacks." Some present-day factors that deserve consideration: 1) inflation has forced many employers to search for cheap labor, 2) illegals can work for less than established minimum wages (even less than during the wage-controlled Bracero Program), 3) welfare and non-work poverty programs often make the domestic worker reluctant to accept low-paying jobs, 4) the impossibility of a citizen family to subsist on alien depressed wages unless there are several wage earners in the family, 5) the tendency of training programs to inspire domestic workers to seek better and easier jobs thus leaving the menial and undesirable jobs available — and the alien will accept this work. The conclusion is still the same; the "wetback" is satisfied as he is earning more than he would be able to at home and the American employer is satisfied as he is able to procure cheap labor even in these times. Both sides are happy, but it is still illegal and the I&NS is charged with the prevention of this practice.

Until the conditions that cause illegal entry are corrected or substantially alleviated the seemingly endless work of the Immigration and Naturalization Service will continue and its work load will continue its relentless increase. The responsibility for enforcing the immigration laws is the primary function of the department of Domestic Control which consists of two coordinated divisions of the Service — Investigations (in plain clothes) and the Border Patrol (in uniform). The Border Patrol has always accounted for the bulk of apprehensions but in recent years the share of the plain-clothesmen has increased due to the tendency of more and more illegals to try and "get lost" in large urban areas away from the border.

Border vigilance along with apprehension and deportation of illegal aliens is a very expensive endeavor and seemingly unproductive, as the problem grows larger even while a solution is being sought. With a staff of 7,500 the yearly budget of the I&NS is approaching $150 million. Included in this budget is $15 million for detention and deportation, most of which is spent in detention centers in El Centro, California, El Paso, Texas and Los Fresnos near Port Isabel, Texas. The average cost per day to house and feed each alien is $4.25. This last year the daily average number detained was 300 in each of the centers, which produces a daily cost to the Service of $3,800 just for processing.

Table VII

ILLEGAL ALIENS LOCATED BY IMMIGRATION BORDER PATROL
Selected Years Ending June 30

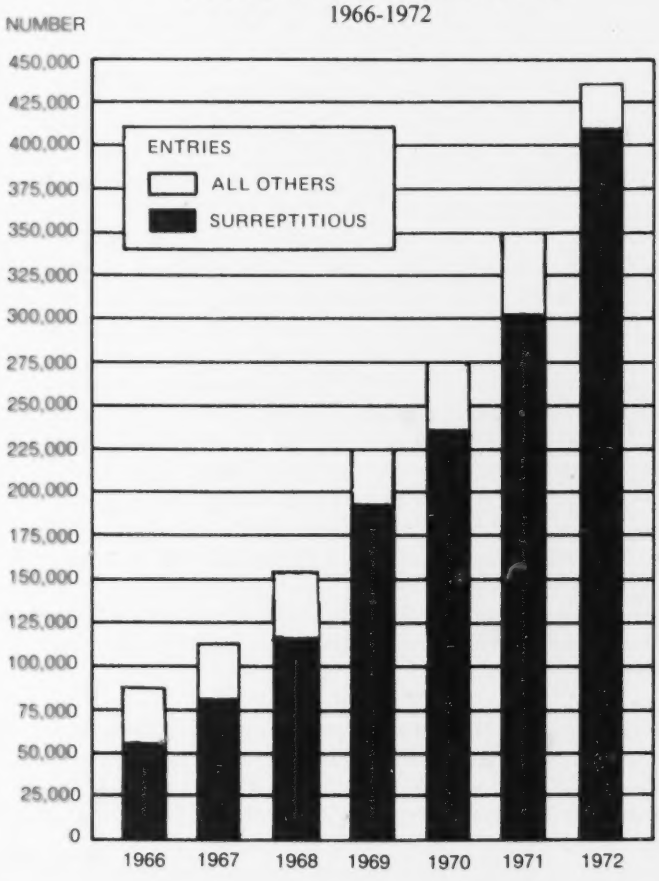
	1960	1965	1970	1971	1972
Deportable Aliens Located	28,966	52,422	231,116	302,517	373,896
Mexican Aliens	22,687	44,161	219,254	290,152	355,099
Canadian Aliens	4,645	5,795	7,786	7,512	8,245
All Others	1,634	2,466	4,076	4,853	6,151
Smugglers of Aliens Located	330	525	3,298	3,814	4,564
Aliens Previously Expelled	9,374	13,955	67,440	90,402	115,758

Changing Work Load of the BORDER PATROL
(figures in thousands)

	1960	1965	1970	1971	1972
Conveyances Examined	1,659	1,172	1,792	2,024	2,473
Persons Questioned	6,190	5,285	6,805	7,664	9,024
Narcotics Seizures	$52	$393	$3,865	$5,379	$11,708

Despite the expense and effort, Table VII indicates that the Service is losing ground in its struggle to stem the tide of illegal entries. The situation becomes even more alarming when a "rule of thumb" is applied that estimates that for each alien caught and returned another one successfully avoided detection. Further estimates put at two million the number of illegal Mexicans now living in the U.S. These persons, of course, are not counted in the Census, they do not register at the post office in January and they do not contribute taxes toward the support of the government and its services. The time has come to clean out the entire unlawful alien population so that when adequate legislation is enacted it will be effective — and this too, will cost money.

DEPORTABLE MEXICAN ALIENS
FOUND IN THE UNITED STATES
1966-1972



In reality, this is the second time around for this situation. The first instance started during the negotiating days before the Bracero Program and continued after the program was formalized. The Bracero Program brought minimum wages and specified working conditions but many farmers and

growers refused to join the program and instead continued to hire "wetbacks" for less wages and had no compliance obligations to worry about. This unlawful movement became so great it jeopardized the success of the Bracero Program and brought about joint action by both governments in a concerted effort to apprehend and return to Mexico all possible illegal entrants. This was to be known as

Mexican Wetbacks Apprehended Before and
During the Bracero Program

1948 — 179,385	1953 — 865,318
1949 — 278,538	1954 — 1,075,168
1950 — 458,215	1955 — 242,608
1951 — 500,000	1956 — 72,442
1952 — 543,538	1957 — 44,451

"Operation Wetback" of 1954 and apprehensions totaled more than a million. Two years later deportations were down to less than 45,000 thus bringing to an end a decade of intense job replacement by American employers due to the easy access of low-cost labor. After some arm twisting and other subtle pressures were applied to bring employers into the "controlled" labor program, apprehensions held steady until the year after the termination of the Bracero Act when the number of illegals began a steady increase again. The basic difference between the two situations is that one involved mostly easy to identify farm labor working not too removed from the border area, while the present situation involves many more job pursuits and the fact that the aliens have infiltrated into every corner of the nation.

The profession of smuggling aliens into the U.S. is nothing new (it has been going on since the time of the Chinese Exclusion Act) but what *is* new is that it is now big business involving many people and much money. Since there is a never ending supply of clients willing to risk fortune and undergo hardships, smuggling continues to be an attractive and lucrative racket. Fees are high and collected in advance, overhead is low and income is never reported for income tax purposes, and if caught the smuggler, with few exceptions, is rarely given more than a light sentence for "inducing or assisting" the aliens. Another lucrative racket, and not as risky as smuggling, is falsifying immigration documents. If one combines the two activities and also adds an employment recruiting service you have a "full service" combination that is hard to beat. Some deals guarantee the would-be wetback transportation, a job and temporary living quarters at destination. Guarantee is used rather loosely as occasionally something goes wrong:

> Marshall, Texas. A bob-tailed truck loaded with cabbage was towed in for repairs. The mechanics noticed the truck moved slightly for no reason, then the cabbage started shifting and soon there was cabbage all over the garage and 34 aliens were running and hobbling off in all directions. They had been under that load of cabbage for twelve hours.
>
> Des Moines, Iowa. A large pickup truck was taken into custody at the local weighing station when the weight seemed excessive for the grapefruit cargo it was hauling. The reason for the discrepancy was a hidden compartment containing 21 aliens loaded in McAllen, Texas — 1,200 miles away.

Bloomington, Ill. Illinois State Police detained a rented van truck that contained 34 illegal aliens from Nuevo Laredo, Mexico who had been in the van for a day and half without food or water.

McAllen, Texas. Following up a tip, Border Patrol agents stopped a 44-foot crude oil tanker trailer and discovered that the middle compartment had a false bottom and 22 aliens were stuffed into a cylindrical space six feet in diameter. Their destination was Chicago and the tanker was being used only for a short haul but the fumes were so overwhelming that it is doubtful how long the passengers could have endured.

Total Deportable Aliens from Western Hemisphere Countries

Country	1969	1970	1971	1972
Mexican	201,636	277,377	348,178	430,213
Canadian	12,753	11,323	10,461	11,012
BWI and British Honduras	3,053	4,074	9,011	4,137
Dominican	2,134	2,642	2,777	2,681
Cuban	1,657	1,385	1,330	1,340
Other W. Hemis.	13,035	15,219	16,707	19,961

The above table gives us a hemisphere look at the illegal entrants and while Canada and Cuba remain constant Mexico shows an astonishing upsurge (115% increase in 4 years).

Since the underlying motive for all of this struggle is economic, the first and most direct approach to stem this illegal invasion would be to dry up the work sources. It is feasible to count on cooperation from the Mexican government as it has in the past, but the legislative initiative must come from the U.S. lawmakers as this invasion is a one way street — in this direction. Comprehensive, stringent and enforceable laws must be enacted and must include:

1) Amend the Immigration and Nationality Act to make employers who hire illegal aliens subject to criminal prosecution and place on the employers the burden of determining the immigration status of the worker.

2) Tighten the Social Security law so as to restrict membership to only citizens and "bona fide" residents. This would make it difficult for employers to hire illegals and also prevent alien misuse of a card to which they have no legal right.

When Table VII indicates that 125,000 "repeaters" will be apprehended this year it is obvious that simple expulsion or deportation is not the answer to the problem. Only by timely and adequate legislation, as we have suggested, can we prevent the unlawful exploitation of Mexican labor to the detriment of U.S. citizens and legal residents. The Mexican government is cognizant of the seriousness of the problem, which is underscored by the fact that it was among the topics on the agenda for discussion when the two presidents met in Washington at mid-year 1972. It is suggested that the solution could come (in part) from "more government credits to Mexico to create more job opportunities and better wages for "campesinos," which may be more altruistic than realistic.

The problem of illegal entrants has many ramifications and it is doubtful if any one law could furnish the solution. But a beginning is imperative, even if later adjustments or amendments are necessary. One can only hope that policies will be adopted which will mitigate the ill effects inherent in this pernicious movement which has perpetrated such economic imbalance and social maladjustment on the peoples of both nations.

TECHNICAL-VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN TEXAS

Vocational education has been with us for many years. The terms "trade school" and "business college" have been a common part of our vocabulary since the turn of the century when these training institutions were being established as an alternative to the father-to-son apprenticeship training and to fill the need for clerical help in the fast growing business-industrial community. However, training for a trade or training for office work was not offered in our public schools. Vocational education in the nation's secondary schools came into being as a result of the passage by Congress of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917. But it was not until the twenties that some of the elementary schools began offering a manual arts course for boys and homemaking course for girls in addition to strictly academic studies. During these early beginnings the courses were generally electives and the student's casual relationship with carpentry and metal work, with cooking and sewing, was not intended to develop a profound vocational drive but rather to expose the student to the fact that some manual dexterity in these areas is necessary regardless of where his academic pursuits took him. At the high school level "shop" and "office ed." were frequently considered as refuges for the academic non-achievers and manual arts majors were never found on the honor roll. This whole attitude is changing as our times are changing. Is education for education's sake really enough? Are we actually educating our youth for living and making a living? Many distinguished authorities in the field of education think not and have joined with the U.S. Commissioner of Education in an attempt at restructuring the nation's educational system.

Texas was quick to join the vanguard of those seeking educational improvement and has now acquired nationwide recognition as a model state in the field of technical-vocational education. Admittedly it has not been easy and there is much more to be done. The turning point in attitude and approach toward public education in Texas dates from the passage of SB-4 by the 59th Legislature in 1965 which established the Governor's Committee on Public School Education. In 1968, after nearly three years of intensive research and analysis the committee rendered its report to Governor John Connally as a factual and objective evaluation of the current status of public education in Texas as well as a practical blueprint to attain a position of excellence in educational achievement. The committee recognized at that time that an educational revolution was in progress and that organizational structure, basic programs and their implementation were the areas most in need of scrutiny, and further, that a solution had to be found to the paradox of youth unemployment and a skilled labor shortage. This exhaustive report, which was entitled "The Challenge and the Chance," was also to serve as a basis for Governor Preston Smith's four year educational program which included both short and long range goals for the public school system.

For many years Governor Smith had been a relentless crusader for occupational oriented education and when he became chief executive of the state he began immediately to do something about it.

The tool that he was to use is the Advisory Council for Technical-Vocational Education which was provided for him by legislative action. The national Vocational Education Act of 1963 set the stage for individual states to enter this field of educational endeavor by providing federal funds on a matching basis and the subsequent vocational amendments of 1968 contained in PL 90-576 provided the mechanism for establishing the Advisory Council. Thus this twenty-one member Council was constituted and held its first meeting in March of 1968 with the Governor's blessings. Almost immediately it was reconstituted by the 61st Legislature under provisions of SB-261 and began to function under its new mandate with the start of the fiscal year beginning September 1, 1969. As stated in its mandate, the purpose of the Council is "To establish a climate conducive to the development of technical, vocational and manpower training in educational institutions in the State of Texas to meet the needs of industrial and economic development of the State."

By September of 1972 the Council was three years old and it is timely to briefly review this "coming of age" period to highlight what was done, where we are now and what indications we have concerning future individual student needs and resources to provide for those needs. To begin with, the members of the Council are recommended by the Governor, appointed by the State Board of Education and approved by the Senate. The first meeting was held in March of 1969 to receive its charge, delineate its goals and to plan for a public hearing in Austin during May of the same year. This initial hearing, held for the purpose of presenting a preliminary State Plan for Vocational Education, seems to have been the catalyst that started a "thinking" chain reaction that was to take the Tech/Voc message to school districts throughout the state along with the Council's sincere request for reaction, comment and input. In March of 1970 the first Governor's Conference on Technical-Vocational Education, co-sponsored by the Council, was held in Austin with 800 persons attending and participating in a variety of seminar-workshops. During January and February of 1971 the Council held fourteen regional hearings from Amarillo to Harlingen and from El Paso to Tyler involving 2,700 interested participants. A second Governor's Conference was held, again in Austin, during March of 1971 and this time the attendance had increased to 1,500. The following year, between January 24 and March 6th, the Council conducted twenty-eight community conferences with approximately 3,600 concerned citizens participating. Concurrent with these conferences the third annual Governor's Conference was held with almost 2,000 persons registering. By this time some very precise conclusions were being arrived at, some very concise recommendations were being formulated and action was to begin under the theme of "A Redirected Education System — A Plan for Action" which is the Council's present commitment and involvement.

When the Council first examined its responsibilities it found that, 1) education of the Council, and, 2) acceptance of the Council by citizens and educators, were of the highest and immediate priority. Compliance with these two important responsibilities was accomplished through the medium of the statewide hearings and the community conferences referred to above.

The purposes of the Regional Hearings were:

1) To provide a public forum for Tech/Voc education in Texas.
2) To secure public response to the recommendations of the Council as submitted to the State Board of Education.

3) To receive suggestions and proposals from the public on Tech/Voc education.
4) To determine barriers to Tech/Voc education and receive suggestions for removal of such barriers.

The specific programs for each regional hearing were outlined by a regional planning committee and in most cases the hearings were chaired by a Council member. Each planning committee named a Panel on Needs and Panel on Resources whose reports did much to enrich the Council's knowledge on local educational concerns. There were 250 persons involved in the planning committees, 150 persons gave panel presentations and over 400 cities were represented in this first series of hearings. Needless to say, the showing of interest, concern and enthusiasm by those attending the hearings was reassuring to the Council.

The series of Community Conferences proved to be a real learning mechanism for the Council and has been considered by many of the members as its most productive tool because of the diversity of community interests that surfaced and the resulting Council role of "informing and being informed." The purposes of these conferences were essentially the same as those of the hearings but the organization and format were quite different. Initial momentum was generated when the Council wrote to the boards of education and the chambers of commerce in thirty widely separated communities outlining the expected benefits to be derived from a conference held at the community level in support of vocational education and suggesting the local leadership involve itself by designating a conference coordinator to work with the Council in formalizing a date and location as well as the format to be followed. Included in the format was a one-page questionnaire for high school seniors which was to prove very informative. A Council staff person and three or four members attended each of the conferences only as monitors and resource people since the actual conduct of the meetings was a local responsibility, thus the Council was able to learn by listening. The advisability of a second follow-up series of conferences is being considered as a possibility for '74 or '75.

The results of the high school student questionnaire were very interesting in light of predictions for the mid-seventies by the American Vocational Association (AVA) to the effect that our total skilled work force will consist of 20% persons with a college degree, 25% with advanced technical education and 55% with occupational training. The survey results show the students' future plans to be:

Enter directly into a 4-year college or university	= 31%
First Junior College then to college or university	= 16%
Junior College, Technical Institute or career training	= 12%
Business or Trade School for career training	= 7%
Go to work immediately	= 10%
Undecided	= 17%

Two categories of the above list become immediately significant; that almost half of the students (sum of the first two lines) aspire to a bachelor degree or higher which represents over twice the number that will be needed according to the AVA and the Department of Labor, and, that almost one-fifth of the students on the threshold of graduation have no post graduation plans. Another aspect of the sur-

vey showed several cases of high career interest in fields already crowded, thus giving credence to the often heard allegation that the guidance services provided by our educational system are woefully inconsistent with reality concerning career opportunities.

A chart and some selected data on Occupational Education in Texas will serve to assess the "progress made in redirecting the educational system to align its products more nearly to the needs of the individuals and to economic and societal realities" during the last five school years.

	68/69	69/70	70/71	71/72	72/73
Funding (in millions):					
Federal	15	19	20	26	29
State and Local	48	61	85	104	124
Total	63	80	105	103	153

(The state continues to increase its share of the cost burden as the matching ratio has moved up from 1 x 3 to 1 x 4)

Total Statewide Enrollment in Occupational Education: (in thousands)	498	511	608	648	812

(Showing steady, although not uniform, growth with a five year increase of 38%)

Percentage of Total Enrollment, Grades 7 thru 12:	19.9	21.2	26.1	25.9	28.9

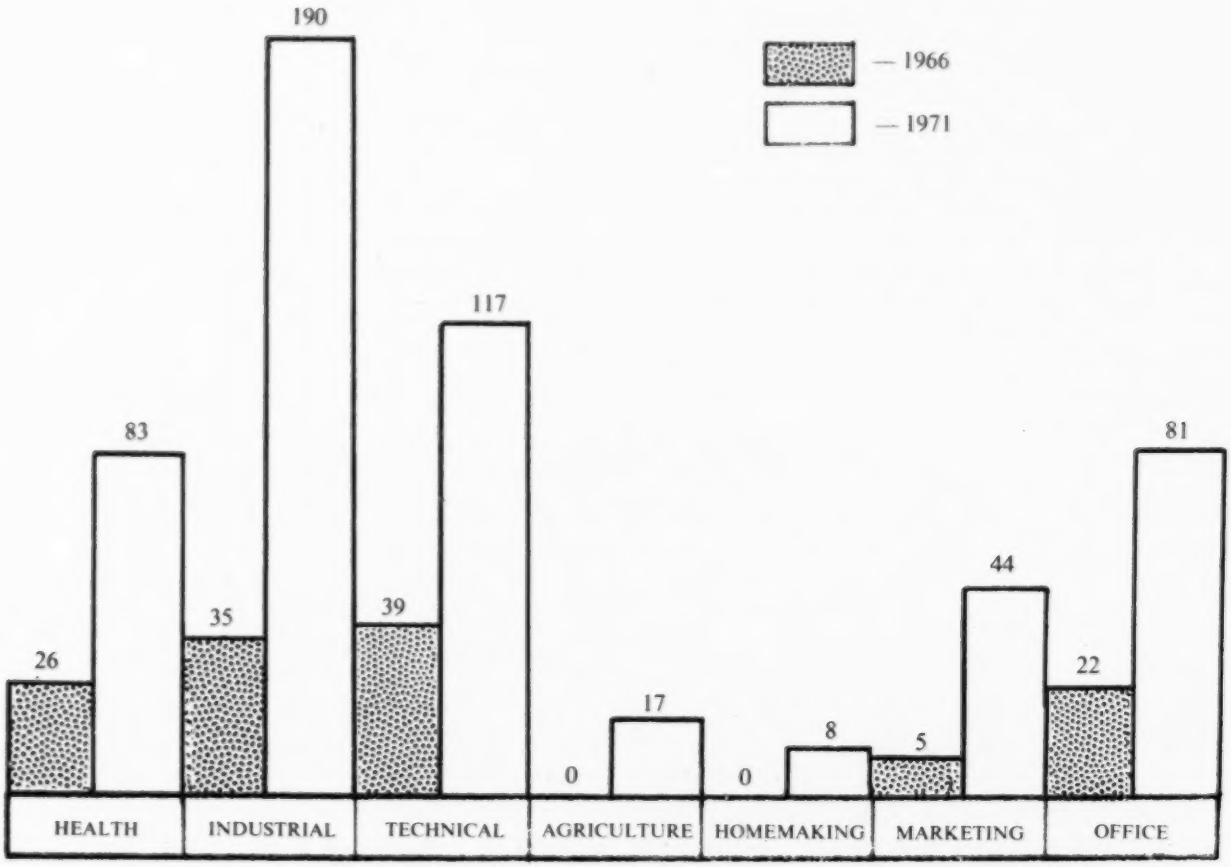
(Showing a 31% increase at the Junior and Senior high school level)

Enrollment by level as % of Total Enrollment:

Junior High School	3%
Senior High School	47%
Junior College	8%
Special Students	1%
Adults	41%

The two principal groups participating in this type of training are, as would be expected, high school students and adults. Data being collated at this present time indicate that adult enrollment is increasing at a somewhat faster rate than that at the high school level due in great part to increased enrollment of the immediate post graduates, both those who had planned on career education as well as those who had remained undecided until graduation time.

The Development of Post Secondary Technical-Vocational Programs in Texas in Seven Different Occupational Areas, 1966-1971

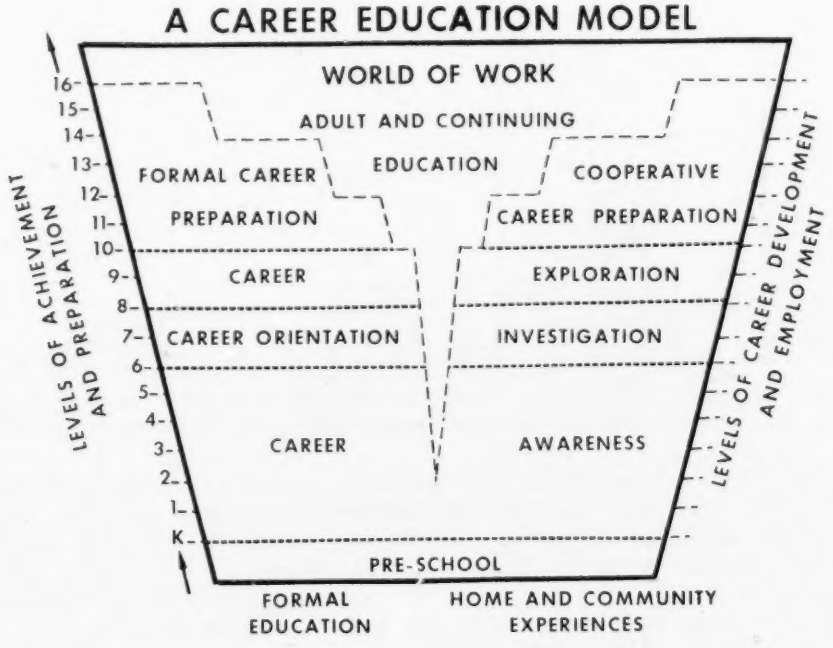


The development and implementation of occupational programs depends on various factors other than funding. Availability of physical facilities, expressed student career preference, projection of labor market needs, shifts in economic and social priorities, is to mention but a few. The above chart seems to indicate that the increases in number of programs are in the areas which have the greatest need for skilled labor. It is to be hoped, however, that the rate of increase will accelerate in the field of health care services since government studies point to a dire shortage of trained personnel in the health occupations before the close of this decade.

CAREER EDUCATION:

Career Education is not a course or a discipline but rather it is a concept which encompasses the career "theme" in all educational experiences at all levels. Nor is it to be considered as a new name for technical, vocational or occupational education since it is actually the embodiment of all of these. What career education attempts to accomplish is to place at the disposal of the individual all possible aid and assistance in arriving at his career choice; hence, all education is career education. The educator's preoccupation with the importance of the career decision is understandable since it is this choice that positions the individual in the world of work for an entire adult lifetime.

The premise on which Career Education is structured is that all honest work and purposeful study is worthwhile and respectable. Now, since we are making up a blueprint for a lifelong projection, it follows that attention to this concept should begin as soon as feasible in childhood and continue through adulthood. The following career education model, prepared by the Advisory Council, illustrates the different phases in the career decision making process. Of course, there is permissible overlap in the different phases of this model and the dotted horizontal lines are perforce somewhat flexible in the grade levels and the development levels but the educational experiences must move forward toward firm career decisions and hopefully reduce the percentage of "undecided" as shown on page three.



The corner stone of our career development structure is not shown on this model (nor could it be illustrated) as it is the invisible and indefinable result of interaction between the individual, his home, community and educational experiences, all of which are influenced by social, economic and technical changes in the work sectors of business, industry and services. With so many variable, all of which can exert a positive or negative influence on the individual's development, it is impossible to construct or even describe a typical or average evolvement of a career development pattern, but in general, it should follow the basic steps of this model. Of two things the reader can be certain; that awareness is the first step and assuming one's place in the world of work is the last.

TEXAS STATE TECHNICAL INSTITUTE:

One of the outstanding efforts in the field of Tech/Voc education in Texas and one which has garnered well deserved national acclaim is our four campus Texas State Technical Institute. This technical school came into being when the legislature in April of 1965 authorized the Texas A&M system to establish a training school at the abandoned James Connally AFB in Waco, and in January of 1966 James Connally Tech opened its doors to 70 students. The idea to convert a deactivated air force base into a technical institute came as a do-it-yourself solution by the civic leaders of Waco when faced with the closing of the air training facility and the consequent dislocation of more than 4,000 assigned personnel and an annual payroll of $19 million.

Official word came from Washington in December of 1964 that the Waco base was to be phased-out and that doomsday would arrive in July, 1966 — something had to be done, and quickly. By mid 1965 the flurry of activity was awe inspiring; appointment of an administrative staff, obtaining state appropriations and federal grants, hiring instructors and developing curriculum, transfer of property titles, etc. The outcome of all of this effort was the birth of an educational concept, based on need and sound judgment, that has proved its worth by its many job-ready graduates and by its phenomenal growth.

The almost immediate success of this first institute for occupational training in Waco provided convincing evidence to support the forthcoming request for autonomy and expansion. This was acted upon by the 61st Legislature and in 1969, effective September 1, the T.S.T.I. was divorced from the A&M system and granted independent status and additional funds to extend itself into other areas of the state. Soon the Office of Education in Washington demonstrated its support by offering more lenient federal grants to expand this effort.

In August of 1969, James Connally Technical Institute held its last graduation ceremony, at which the chairman of the Advisory Council for Technical-Vocational Education spoke, and the transition to T.S.T.I. became a reality. With the severance from A&M came a new role and scope for the institute as defined under HB-137 and the following mandated objectives:

1) Provide occupationally oriented programs in technical and vocational areas to include field or laboratory work, remedial or related academic and technical instruction.

2) Provide training programs for technical teachers, counselors and supervisors.

3) To conduct manpower development and utilization research to identify needs and make projections for curriculum development.

T.S.T.I. is a "special purpose" institute (as contrasted to multi-purpose institutions such as colleges and universities); it is fully state supported, and has specific functions in four basic areas of primary emphasis, which are: 1) pre-employment training for youth and adults, 2) supplementary training for employed persons seeking to improve their job performance, 3) professional and technical training for teachers, counselors and supervisors, 4) occupational research and development.

Particularly significant about this kind of special purpose institution is the ability to accommodate individuals with various ability levels and educational backgrounds. A wide range of programs includes some quite sophisticated high level programs as well as elemental development programs for applicants who lack the ability or skill to enter a formal training program. There is a program for every one and staff counseling is used to place the prospective trainees where improvement is most likely. Another significant thing is the open-ended nature of the courses and instruction. This structure accommodates fast learners as well as the slow achievers. Thus, when a training slot becomes vacant due to graduation, dropping out or by taking temporary leave, it can be filled immediately. This lack of rigid class composition allows more time for those who are academically slower or for those who have manual dexterity problems but does not bridle the more adept students.

Now, six years after that first class sat together at JCTI in Waco, "STATE TECH" consists of four campuses, offers sixty different courses, enrolls almost 4,000 students, offers an accredited degree under Texas Education Agency regulations and also offers job placement services.

The Rio Grande Campus in Harlingen, at the southern tip of the state, is of particular interest as it was designed for capabilities to train and serve the people we deal with in this report; the undereducated, the Spanish-speaking and the migrants. This is the second unit of the T.S.T.I. group and the state's first bilingual technical training facility. Following a somewhat similar pattern as that of Waco, the Harlingen branch was established in the abandoned installations of the former Air Force navigator training school which had been deactivated in 1952. The institute was actually put together in September of 1967, as a branch of the JCTI of Waco, and in the beginning it was a do-the-best-with-what-you-have situation as hangers, recreation rooms and basketball courts did not lend themselves easily to creating a classroom atmosphere. Understandingly there was much improvisation in order to get the job done. From the outset there were funds available from the Office of Economic Opportunity fo the implementation of programs for migrant and seasonal workers but it was soon apparent that basic education, the three "R's" and English proficiency, was of first concern with these people before technical instruction could begin. Despite the fact that bilingual instruction was offered it was found that many of the applicants were illiterate in both languages, hence academic preparation was needed before skill preparation could be attempted.

It was not until May of 1968 that the first graduation exercise took place, the graduation of twenty welders, but this seems to have been the spark that ignited a chain of events that culminated in a $15 million grant from the Economic Development Administration of the Department of Commerce written into a five year program for the construction of a functional and permanent facility to meet the specialized needs of the wide variety of students found in South Texas. These new facilities consist of six buildings which include a library, an administration building, shops and classrooms. Living quarters, made by transforming and refurbishing former AFB barracks, are offered for housing to singles and couples. The success of this campus of T.S.T.I. has required an incredible amount of drive and dedication on the part of staff and administration due to the wide variety of student capabilities, and they are to be commended for making a reality of the institute's theme; "TRAINING TOMORROW'S TECHNICIANS TODAY."

TEXAS STATE TECH. . . . in brief

TYPE OF SCHOOL: MULTI-CAMPUS POST SECONDARY TECHNICAL AND SKILL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

LOCATIONS: WACO—JAMES CONNALLY CAMPUS
817 - 799-3611

HARLINGEN—RIO GRANDE CAMPUS (Bilingual training)
512 - 425-4922

AMARILLO—MID-CONTINENT CAMPUS
806 - 335-1992

SWEETWATER—ROLLING PLAINS CAMPUS
915 - 235-8441

ACCREDITED: SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS; NUMEROUS PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

FINANCIAL AID: VARIOUS LOANS, GRANTS, SCHOLARSHIPS, AND STUDENT EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMS AVAILABLE; VETERANS ADMINISTRATION APPROVED

HOUSING AND FOOD: DORMITORIES AND DUPLEX TYPE HOUSING; FOOD SERVICE PROVIDED FOR DORMITORY STUDENTS

FACULTY: ALL INSTRUCTORS HAVE PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE IN THEIR FIELD AS WELL AS EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS

ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION:

We have decided to include a brief commentary on adult and continuing education in this chapter on Tech/Voc Education since their goals parallel each other and also because this heading brings into focus the concept of the Full Service Community School. Although this division of the Texas Education Agency administers several programs, the two most outstanding are:

> Adult Basic Education which provides educational opportunities to adults, 16 years and over, with less than a ninth-grade education. Course of instruction includes reading, writing and conversational English; arithmetic; social studies and citizenship; and preparation for entry into occupational training. Last year, with a budget of $3.2 million there were 82,600 participants in the program.
>
> Manpower Development and Training provides training and/or basic education needed by the unemployed or underemployed adults to enable them to obtain jobs in skilled occupations. Also offers refresher or additional training needed to upgrade the underemployed into higher paying jobs. Training is offered only in skills identified by the Texas Employment Commission as "shortage occupations." In 1972, with a budget of $5.8 million there were 19,000 participants in this type of training.

Something is being done to rectify the fact that "about ⅓ of all Texans more than 25 years of age are functionally illiterate." The Adult and Continuing Education division of T.E.A. defines functionally illiterate as a person with less than nine years of school.

Getting additional mileage out of the physical facilities of neighborhood and community schools is nothing new. For years school gyms and auditoriums have been used for PTA meetings, to kick-off a community chest drive, as a podium for visiting lecturers, etc. but now the neighborhood schools in Texas are evolving into something quite different from the conventional "house of learning." Schools must now serve many more people and many more community needs running the gamut from day care centers for infants to advisory centers for the elderly. Thus full-service schools serve to unite and unify the community by drawing city agencies and citizens together in the solution of identified problems. In April 1972, the State Board of Education adopted a position statement reaffirming the traditional role of the public school as a community center for people of all ages and requested school trustees "to provide leadership and encouragement in support of this recommitment."

TEXAS STATE PLAN FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION:

A preliminary State Plan was published in May of 1971 and the final plan, with projections to June of 1977, was published eighteen months later delineating the role and administrative responsibility of the Department of Occupational Education and Technology under the direction of an Associate

Commissioner of Education. This Department consists of five vocationally oriented divisions which are:

Division of Public School Occupational Education.
Division of Post-Secondary Occupational Education and Technology.
Division of Occupational Research and Development.
Division of Adult and Continuing Education.
Division of Proprietary Schools and Veterans Education.

facts about

EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES RELATED TO VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL EDUCATION

- *190,970 workers with skills primarily attainable through vocational or technical education will be needed in Texas in 1974.*
- *80% of all employment opportunities in Texas do not require a college degree.*
- *Some occupations for which there will be the greatest need in 1973-1974 are:*
  - *construction craftsmen of all types*
  - *motor vehicle repairmen*
  - *airplane mechanics*
  - *welders*
  - *assemblers*
  - *stenographers*
  - *typists*
  - *secretaries*
- *Indications are that by 1978, Texas will have jobs for 4.3 million workers with skills acquired from vocational education.*

Of equal importance with preparation is job placement — to prepare for a job that is not forthcoming when training is completed is frustrating to both the school and the student. Anticipating this need, the Department of Occupational Education built in a counseling service and job research into its state plan as well as maintaining a close working arrangement with the Texas Employment Commission. The above printed handout is from the T.E.C. and is an example of cooperation between these agencies. The T.E.C. is a funding vehicle at the state level for the Department of Labor and in many cases is the prime grantee that sub-contracts training programs to qualified plants and facilities. The Commission monitors and evaluates the programs and then reenters the picture actively with its job placement services and follow-up to ascertain job duration and employer/employee attitudes.

CONSUMER STATE CONCERNS

As has been stated in previous chapters of this report, the most urgent demand for migratory farm workers in recent times came during the manpower shortage of World War II. Help was desperately needed for field work, harvesting and food processing in the nation's principal agricultural areas; most particularly in the Midwest and Great Lakes states. Since this was before the mechanization of the cotton harvest the numbers of available mobile farm workers were insufficient to meet the need and it was necessary to supplement their number with aliens from Mexico. During the period of negotiations between the governments of the United States and Mexico aimed at formulating adequate and equitable alien labor controls, the importation of Mexican "nationals" was unregulated and disorganized. This situation lent itself to all manner of labor abuse and unbridled exploitation reminiscent of the era before the Chinese Exclusion Act. Some sociologists state that this dire dependency of farmer and grower on "those Mexicans" spawned a feeling of resentment, even distrust, on the part of the employers. This feeling was reflected in the community attitude which was one of considering these workers as a "necessary evil," merely a means to an end, and thus to be avoided.

This attitude did not appreciably change even during the Bracero Program when minimum requirements on wages, working conditions and fair treatment for authorized aliens were clearly stipulated. In addition to the authorized aliens, the illegal "wetback" was still very much a part of the labor force during the bracero years but toward the end of the program their place was being taken by Mexican American family units from south Texas. One would assume that since the workers then involved were U.S. citizens, and not aliens, that there would be a favorable change in attitude on the part of the consumer states' citizenry. However, with few exceptions, no change was forthcoming until the early 60's when long-standing and persistent clerical intervention in behalf of the migrant workers brought about belated attention to the migrant's precarious existence. Church-sponsored programs tried to drive home three basic points; 1) despite having different customs and speaking a foreign language the Texas migrants are human beings and should be treated as such, 2) that they are subject to the same whims of fate and fortune as anyone else and may require help from their fellowman, and, 3) that the migrant favors the grower with his work equally as much as the grower favors the migrant with a job.

Prior to the 60's about the only "service" that migrants received was that of matching jobs with workers through the use of the Annual Worker Plan which set up a work itinerary for the whole season. Coordination between the employment service divisions of the labor departments of Texas and the worker needy states helped to bring order to the farm labor market and prevent, as much as possible, the costly time losses and delays which often plagued the migrant. However, this useful job service could not guarantee good weather, a bountiful crop, nor steady income so that the migrant's situation at best was a tenuous one with no cushion for unexpected emergencies or misfortunes. On the following page is shown a sample of employment service and farm labor bulletins published regularly as an aid to the worker, the grower and those persons dedicated to helping them both.

CENTRAL STATES MIGRANT LABOR INFORMATION

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS 60604

OHIO

BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

FARM LABOR BULLETIN

The MDMS **Rural Forum**

Published by the MINNESOTA DEPARTMENT of MANPOWER SERVICES

390 North Robert Street, St. Paul, Minnesota 55101

FARM ILLINOIS LABOR BULLETIN

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY

ILLINOIS STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

With the termination of the Bracero Program came an end to federal regulations and controls which had assured worker rights and protection for the imported aliens. So, as the Texas Mexican-Americans moved into the job market left vacant by the departure of the aliens, they did so with literally no protection and no outside concern for their well being. Church groups tried to fill this void but their resources could not cope with the seasonal upsurge in work load nor were they equipped to render services in all of the areas of need. There was only one logical avenue to follow; the labor-consuming states must provide services to the interstate farm workers during their temporary residence there.

As logical as this approach appears, it proved more difficult to accomplish than had been anticipated. Formidable barriers were everywhere. Funds had to be appropriated, and often against strong opposition ("These people are Texans, so let Texas take care of them"). Residence requirements had to be modified or eliminated. Language and customs were, and continue to be, very difficult problems and there was no magician in state government capable of pulling a trained program staff out of his hat. Understandably, no single state agency had the scope to contend with all possible problem areas so most states either formed a migrant affairs division within the governor's office or created an interagency council or committee as a coodinating tool. Coordination, which is so often difficult to accomplish, is absolutely essential since different agencies with different interests are trying to serve the same target population. One of the first shocks to come to agency administrators was the realization that the "migrant needy" were unlike the "needy" they were accustomed to serving and there was no precedent for program design. Another shock was facing the task of finding trained, bilingual personnel with empathy toward the migrants and the ability to gain their confidence. Where was staff to be recruited?

Fortunately, the migrant division of the Office of Economic Opportunity, using Title III-B funds, furnished several grants in different work destination states to non-profit organizations whose working proposals were beamed at aiding migrant farm workers. In most cases, the effort was one of helping to coordinate services available through on-going state programs by getting the client and the service together. The O.E.O. guidelines for staff requirements assured participation of former migrants and Spanish-speaking personnel and thus indirectly helped with the staffing of state agencies in this field. Examples of this type of organization are:

United Migrants for Opportunity, Inc. — Michigan
United Migrant Opportunity Service — Wisconsin
Minnesota Migrant Council — Minnesota
Valley Migrant League — Oregon
Colorado Migrant Council — Colorado

Evaluations and opinions concerning the dollar-value-return and efficacy of these groups vary widely and it is doubtful there is a single one free of controversy; however, their efforts have had a unifying influence on state-sponsored programs and services. At this writing, the future of these and other O.E.O. organizations is very uncertain since they are subject to political and judicial decisions as yet not too clearly defined.

Consumer State Concerns

Although few consumer state plans are over six years old, most of them nevertheless, have put together a "services package" which tries to encompass all migrant problem areas. This would include health needs, welfare, housing, education, legal services, employment and relocation counseling. Two years ago, covering a situation difficult for the individual states, the Department of Labor set aside monies as a part of the National Migrant Program to be held in a "contingency fund" as a source of hard cash for migrants who were in need of emergency money. Last year a number of states joined the Food Stamp program which gives the migrant a break in his cost of living before earnings start coming in, or during lay-off periods, weather induced idleness, etc. Also several states have rewritten their guidelines so as to bring the settled-out migrants into their programs using follow-up techniques. One would question why these relocated families should not become participants in the regular programs for assistance. The answer seems to lie in the growing tendency of newly settled farm worker families to continue to migrate within their own and neighboring states during the harvest and processing season so, since they are technically away from home, their needs are not too unlike those of a Texas migrant. Here again, the lure is that several members can contribute to the family earnings during the agri season and yet not jeopardize local jobs or the off-season educational programs of the children.

A random sampling of several consumer states and brief description of some of the things that are being done is in order:

OHIO: The Ohio Migrant Reception Center near Liberty Center was inaugurated in July of 1966 and offers the arriving workers full time statewide crop and job information, facilities for food preparation, modern bath and sleeping quarters, and a nurse directed clinic with referral services for serious health problems. Heretofore this Center was strictly a seasonal operation but the past two years the living quarters were temporarily modified to house families participating in training programs in preparation for relocation.

Ohio's Department of Public Welfare reassessed its eligibility criteria when the residency requirement was removed several years ago. This has lent the needed flexibility to allow the inclusion of migrants in all of the general aid programs including Day Care and Food Stamps.

The health services that Ohio has to offer the migrants are among the best in the nation and the program continues to expand. In 1963 three county projects were started and by 1972 the number had grown to twelve, including the one at Liberty Center mentioned above. The level of expenditure has increased from an initial start of $62,000 to last year's $774,000 which parallels the case load growth illustrated by the following figures.

Year	Number of Projects	Number of Projects	Number of Visits
1964	5	2,015	3,845
1966	6	2,929	5,484
1968	8	5,407	10,329
1970	11	8,123	15,209
1972	12	10,384	19,836

The health program in Ohio is proof of how "one thing leads to another." Beginning with modest

health considerations, the program now contains Day Care centers, Head Start and hot lunch programs, local medical and dental referrals, hospitalization, evening adult sessions in basic hygiene, nutrition, planned parenthood and long term referrals back to the Texas Department of Health.

MICHIGAN: This state has traditionally been the largest consumer of out-of-state farm labor because of the labor intensive crops grown there, such as cherries, cucumbers and strawberries. This being the case Governor Romney, possibly anticipating the end of the Bracero Program, named a Governor's Commission on Migrant Labor in 1964. A two year study by this commission brought forth the recommendations which are now the foundation of the state's very comprehensive migrant program guided by the Inter-Agency Committee for Migrant Affairs, Area Migrant Councils, the Migrant Services Program Unit and the Department of Social Services. These administrative groups are aided in coordination and consultation by two excellent research/study departments at the University of Michigan and Michigan State University.

Until recently Michigan was the source of more job orders than any other state sent to the Texas Employment Commission for processing. This is no longer true, and it is precisely because of the fact that the high labor demand crops which carried such a high labor cost burden, were a prime target for mechanization. Over half of the cherry crop is now machine harvested, so is a third of the cucumber crop and picking platforms are reducing labor needs in strawberries. The result in Michigan has been a sharp decline in field labor needs and consequent labor surpluses for the last three years, which means less work for more people, which in turn means more need for more services to the migrants.

Michigan was one of the first states to appreciate the need to communicate with the migrant workers in Spanish and now all of the member agencies in the Inter-Agency Committee publish their directories and directives, their bulletins and folders using a bilingual format. The principal non-government organization sponsoring migrant services is the United Migrants for Opportunity, Inc. whose involvement in the Day Care field and the Food Stamp program brings it into coordinated action with the agencies interested in health, education and social services. The UMOI group has also been active in relocation programs, and with reason, since a good portion of its staff are former migrants.

WISCONSIN: This land of lakes and cheese was one of the pioneers in advocating state involvement in confronting and attempting to solve the problems unique to migrant workers. Prior to the President's comprehensive national study of the subject in 1950, the Wisconsin Governor's Committee on Human Rights issued the first official state report in the entire country on the recognized need of migratory farm workers. It was determined at that time that no matter what steps the federal government might take concerning the welfare of these people, state action would also be indispensible. Acting on this indisputable premise over two decades ago, Wisconsin can point to an enviable record of accomplishment in the area of migrant services.

Initial awareness of migrant workers came in 1947, which was the first year that Texas Mexicans were used in substantial numbers in Wisconsin, and which prompted the formation in 1950 of the Inter-Agency Committee on Migrant Problems. The following year migrant labor camp regulations were issued by the state Board of Health and this law, in its present form, has served as a model for several other states in writing their labor housing laws. In 1953 the interagency committee was restructured and renamed, becoming the State Migrant Committee. This committee was to endure until 1960

when it was disbanded and immediately replaced by the present Governor's Committee on Migratory Labor which concerns itself with all phases of the migrant labor scene; employment, assistance programs, needed legislation, and the general well-being of the migrant people.

Last year, seeking better program coordination, particularly at the county level, a statewide Migrant Services Planning Committee was formed of all agencies serving migrants. Although having the same aims, this was not a rebirth of the interagency committee mentioned above since this committee had federal agencies and private groups as well as grower representatives among its membership. Despite a steady decline in work (last year only 6,100 migrant workers went to Wisconsin in search of employment, down from a high of 11,000 in 1968) the state migrant program last year was more efficient and effective than ever before. Undoubtedly part of the credit for this efficiency is due to a unique state agency structure. Two departments (Industry, Labor and Human Relations and that of Health and Social Services) combined with the Department of Public Instruction to cover the public service areas that in most states require at least six agencies. Perhaps another factor to consider is that delivery of services is somewhat more dependable now since 55% of the migrants are in-plant workers (easier to keep track of) whereas before field workers (harder to locate) were in the majority.

Among the consumer states' many non-profit organizations serving the migrants, the United Migrant Opportunity Services, Inc. of Wisconsin is outstanding. This is not only by virtue of the variety of programs the organization oversees but the high level of regard it enjoys from the state agencies with which it cooperates. The UMOS, with four service centers, is involved in employment, Day Care and Head Start, emergency food distribution, outreach counseling and referral services, and in the permanent relocation of families.

MINNESOTA: Although Minnesota has been using migrant field workers for two decades it has only been recently that any attempt has been made to put together a program of services. On the other hand the Minnesota Department of Manpower Services (formerly the Department of Employment Security) is to be commended for its many years of job/worker coordination for the benefit of both grower and worker and its close cooperation with the Texas Employment Commission.

The MDMS distributes an outstanding biweekly bulletin, "Rural Forum" which not only carries crop information and job opportunities within the state but also crop and general information on its neighboring states. For the past two years, in an attempt to minimize the number of workers and maximize their warnings, the Forum has practiced "negative recruiting" to discourage workers who do not have firm job commitments from making an unproductive trip to Minnesota. This effort has definitely curtailed the number of "free wheelers," but not enough. There is still a surplus of job seekers. The reasoning here is that sugar beet thinning in the Red River valley is being mechanized and uneconomic mills are being closed and the proof is that now at the season of peak labor demand the worker mix is ⅔ local and ⅓ migrant whereas it used to be the reverse.

The Minnesota Migrant Program, administered by the MDMS, was begun in 1970 as a continuance idea from the two year Experiment and Demonstration Project started by the Department of Labor in

STATE OF MICHIGAN

MIGRANT SERVICES DIRECTORY

ESTADO DE MICHIGAN GUIA DE SERVICIOS PARA TRABAJADORES DEL CAMPO

FARM LABOR BULLETIN

EMERGENCY SERVICES FOR MIGRANTS

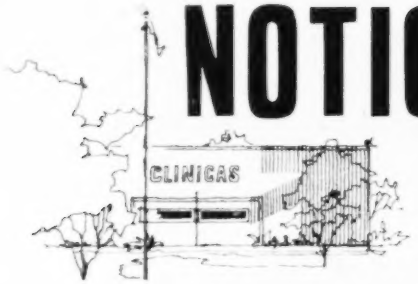
Food — Medicine — Clothing

SERVICIOS DE EMERGENCIA PARA MIGRANTES

Comida — Medicos — Ropa

WISCONSIN STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
A Division of the Department of
INDUSTRY, LABOR & HUMAN RELATIONS

Wisconsin Department of Health and Social Services



NOTICE!

¡NOTICIA!

Public Health Clinics for agricultural workers and their families.
Clínicas de salud pública para trabajadores de agricultura y sus familias.

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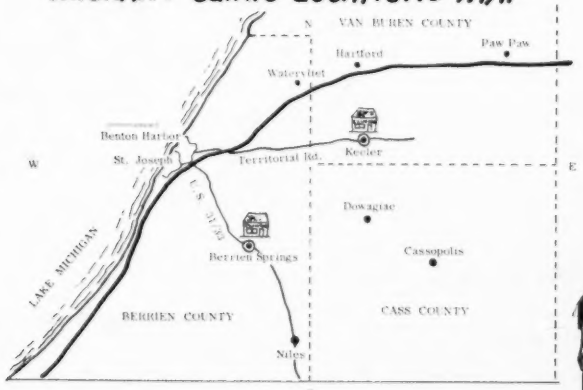
CLINICS ARE OPEN JUNE 2 — AUG. 29
FUNCIONAN LAS CLINICAS DESDE EL 2 DE JUNIO HASTA EL 29 DE AGOSTO

CLINICS — Clínicas

- **KEELER SCHOOL** — Keeler, Mich.
  7-9 P.M. EVERY MONDAY, WEDNESDAY AND FRIDAY
  7-9 P.M. CADA LUNES, MIERCOLES Y VIERNES
- **PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOL** — W. Marrs St., Berrien Springs, Michigan
  7-9. P.M. EVERY TUESDAY AND THURSDAY
  7-9 P.M. CADA MARTES Y JUEVES

MIGRANT CLINIC LOCATIONS MAP



1969 to determine migrant needs and the state resources to meet those needs. The value of the E and D project is debatable but certainly it did not produce enough foundation material on which to construct the state migrant program in Minnesota. There seemed to be no mechanism to allow Health, Public Welfare and Education services to mesh with Labor, and in an attempt to accomplish this, an interested group applied to the O.E.O. for a grant and formed the Minnesota Migrant Council in 1971. At that time the Minnesota Migrant Program suffered a reduction in staff and a hiring freeze thus becoming ineffectual in its coordinating functions. Unfortunately, the Migrant Council was unable to fill the breach on such short notice because of the lack of tactical experience. So, in 1972 supportive services for migrants were much the same as before the start of the Minnesota Migrant Program. The Department of Public Welfare, which has been providing aid and services to Texas migrants for a number of years, licensed fourteen Day Care centers financed with Title IV-A funds and continued with its outreach services at the county level. The Department of Health has been receiving funds from the Public Health Service since 1963 to maintain its migrant health program which consists mainly of referrals on a fee-for-service basis, referrals back to Texas and physical screening of all migrant children enrolled in the Day Care centers. Despite the decrease in migrants entering the state the yearly case load for health services continues to increase.

Among other things, the ten-state E and D Project referred to above pointed out very clearly that no two states had the same attitude, funding or program expertise in the area of migrant supportive services. With this fact in mind it is obvious that the degree of success in aiding migrant workers depends on the individual state's efforts. The basic ingredients for a successful program are time and experience, bilingual staff members, coordination between service oriented agencies, linkage with non-profit groups and, not the least in importance, adequate funding. In general, the outlook for next year is for about the same number of migrants in the stream as last year, who will encounter less work and need more services.

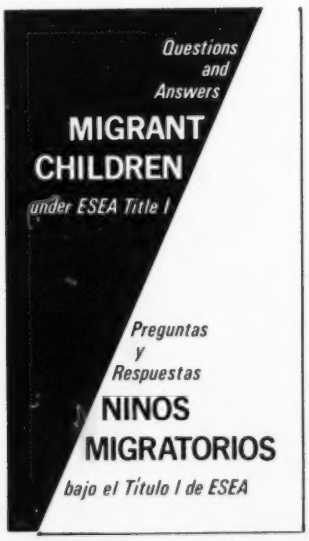
CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

A section on current developments has been a part of this annual report for several years as it is the most direct way to update the reader on current matters that affect the Texas migrant worker and his family. Included among the topics to be covered will be some recent developments in Mexican American affairs. This is in keeping with the intent of this report since our migrants, in ethnic make-up, are almost entirely Mexican American. As in previous years the important areas of interest to be considered are education, housing, health, job and economic development.

A. EDUCATION:

This Commission, in reviewing the Texas effort in the field of migrant education and programs for the Spanish-speaking, is reporting general resource material, reactions from personal attendance at conferences and workshops as well as information and opinions obtained from interviews with educators in different educational fields. It is hoped that when the reader has finished this section on education and couples it with the previous chapter on "Technical-Vocational Education in Texas" that all doubt will be dispelled concerning the effort that Texas is making to bring quality educational experiences to its underprivileged citizens.

Migrant Child Education:

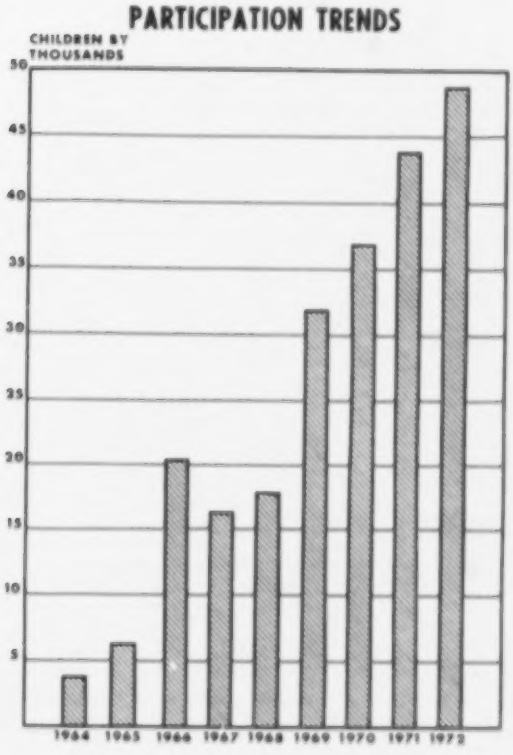


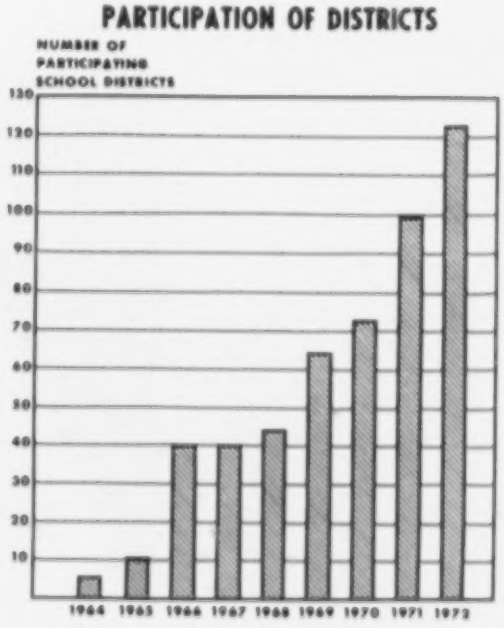
Bilingual folder published by the Office of Education of HEW

A milestone of sorts was reached during October of 1972 when the Texas Education Agency held its Tenth Annual Migrant Workshop at McAllen in the Lower Rio Grande Valley. The theme of the three-day meeting was, "MIGRANT EDUCATION — a Decade of Growth," and the T.E.A. can be

justly proud that this workshop brought together almost 3,000 educators to review the accomplishments of the past ten years in this field and to plan for the future. Delegates attending included Texas program administrators anxious to compare notes with their counterparts from other school districts, out of state visitors equally anxious to learn how to set up and implement migrant programs in their own states, and teachers and teacher aides sharing experiences and know-how. Of particular significance was the choice of the meeting place, Central Elementary School, since it is the site of one of the original programs the delegates were able to get a true classroom environment and to observe teaching techniques and materials at first hand.

The Texas Education Agency, realizing that regular school programs would never meet the special needs of the migrant child, developed in 1962 the Texas Program for the Education of Migrant Children (TPEMC) to improve the quality of education offered these children. In 1963, the T.E.A. designed a long range Texas Child Migrant Program (TCMP) to replace the original TPEMC and implemented the first experimental programs in five independent school districts in the Lower Rio Grande Valley. From these five programs and a first year budget of $100,000 the TCMP has grown to a $15 million yearly budget used to sustain programs in 123 IDS's serving 49,000 students (including the children in Enrichment Programs) as is illustrated by the following two charts.





The present migrant child program is a direct outgrowth of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 which was specifically designed to help educationally deprived children and to provide for federal participation and funding of state operated educational programs. The charts on the opposite page show the dramatic upsurge that took place after the Act was amended in 1966 by PL 89-750 to include the children of migratory agricultural workers.

The basic goal of the program is to offer the migrant child a comprehensive and total educational program that will help him realize his full potential and thus prepare him for entering the mainstream of the state's educational process. There are two different thrusts used to accomplish this goal; the seven month program and the regular (enrichment) program. Last year there were 19 ISD's operating the seven month program while the other 104 districts operated their programs during the entire regular school term. Even though there were five times as many districts offering the regular program, the student participation was equally divided between the two systems. The following table indicates that although these programs served children from pre-kinder through high school, the bulk of the load is at the elementary level — kinder through grade six.

PARTICIPATION BY GRADE LEVEL IN TEXAS
CHILD MIGRANT PROGRAMS

Grade	7-month	Regular	Total
Pre-kinder	91	202	293
Kinder	2,009	1,645	3,654
1	2,696	3,368	6,064
2	2,540	2,920	5,460
3	2,519	2,666	5,185
4	2,283	2,422	4,705
5	2,088	2,356	4,444
6	2,027	2,031	4,058
7	1,840	1,910	3,750
8	1,641	1,797	3,438
9	1,478	507	1,985
10	1,143	509	1,652
11	719	276	995
12	628	325	953
Ungraded	564	1,026	1,590
Special Education	276	346	622
TOTAL	24,542	24,306	48,848

The SEVEN MONTH PROGRAM is used to compensate for the inability of migrant children to attend school the entire regular term since, due to their mobility their time at home base is limited. These children receive the same amount of classroom exposure but it is compressed into 135 days which requires that the school day be extended plus a reduction in vacation time during the Christmas holidays. Migrant children in this program are put into separate classrooms which allows them to start and end their school "year" together. Each ISD in this group tries to adjust its calendar to the travel plans of the majority of migrant families hence classes seldom start before October 15 and never continue beyond the first week of May. This type of program is more specialized and costly than regular school and is, therefore, warranted only where there is a high concentration of migrant children to be served, which is the case in south Texas.

The REGULAR MIGRANT PROGRAM in school districts which participate in TCMP provides supplementary educational services called Enrichment Programs during the regular ten month term. Various tools are utilized to implement this enrichment concept and include; 1) an extra teacher in a special classroom, 2) a circulating "trouble shooter" teacher, 3) individual attention using teacher aides, 4) extended day, and 5) separate migrant classrooms — or any combination of these. Basic in all program planning is to be certain there is no over distinction between these children and non-migrant students that could cause a stigma or feeling of being "different" in the minds of the migrants. Actually, within the framework of the U.S. Office of Education's guidelines, each school district is required to design its local program in accord with the identified needs of the migrant children it serves — which is as it should be.

One of the supporting strategies to assure the success of a migrant program is the use of a group of ancillary pupil services, both in school and out of school. The object of these extra services is to help the disadvantaged child shoulder the burden of learning by making sure he is well fed, well clothed, physically well and worry free. These services consist of academic counseling, medical and dental examinations and referrals, breakfast and lunch programs, clothing distribution and teacher-family liaison. It would be difficult to pinpoint any one feature of this supportive package as the reason for a program's success but the combinations of all features has produced praiseworthy results.

Since the inception of the migrant child program, the Texas Education Agency has been aware that it would literally have to "produce" the necessary personnel for the program as there was no source of experienced teachers, aides or administrators. So, in 1966 T.E.A. conducted the first Summer Institute for Personnel in TCMP to train staff and improve their competency in this specialized field of education. This program of summer institutes has grown at a comparable rate with the TCMP and last year involved six south Texas colleges and four Regional Educational Service Centers giving special training to 1,500 individuals. While in attendance the participants receive a sustenance stipend during the 4 to 6 weeks of study courses and demonstration work which comes from Title I funds. A latent feature of this training approach is that personnel trained in this manner can move quickly into bilingual education if their ISD plans to implement such a program as many districts have done.

Bilingual Education:

It has been said that bilingual education was not really planned in 1963 — it just happened! In Miami and Dade County the contemporary school procedures were woefully lacking in meeting the educational needs of the thousands of Spanish speaking Cuban children residing in that area, and it was thought that using the child's mother tongue to start his educational career might be the answer. The first program was established in Miami and the following year two similar programs were instituted in Texas. These initial programs soon attracted national interest in educational circles and the concept began to spread. During the past decade, the same basic technique has been used to put in motion forty bilingual programs in Texas independent school districts and the level of federal funding has increased in proportion. To coordinate the overall effort in Texas it was necessary to create within the Texas Education Agency a new office, under the direction of an assistant commissioner, called International and Bilingual Education. Similar to the situation in the child migrant programs, recruiting competent teaching personnnel and program staff has been very difficult.

A child's educational achievement should not be limited because of his race, national background or the fact that his home spoken language is other than English, and to prevent this he should be offered instruction in the language he understands. To do this an adjunct to the present system had to be devised that would result in equality of education for linguistically different children; this was bilingual education. Therefore, bilingual education is actually "teaching" in two languages and using them both as mediums of instruction for any part of the curriculum, thus preparing the child to function equally well in two languages. To accomplish this, the basic concepts of learning must be taught in the child's first language and then it follows that the second language can be taught just as though it were any other subject.

The nation's basic education law, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, was the logical vehicle to carry the Texas sponsored Bilingual Education Act which was presented for legislative consideration at the Washington level in mid 1967. This Act was passed by Congress on January 2, 1968 as an amendment to the ESEA and was signed the same day by President Johnson as Title VII of the basic law. This PL 90-247 contains the following two provisos in its Declaration of Policy:

> "In recognition of the special educational needs of the large numbers of children of limited English-speaking ability, Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local education agencies to develop and carry out new and imaginative bilingual programs . . ."
>
> "Though the Title VII program affirms the primary importance of English it also recognizes that a child's mother tongue, which is other than English, can have a beneficial effect upon his education and when used as a medium of instruction can help prevent retardation in his school performance."

Under the Bilingual Education Act monies were authorized for the purpose of making grants under Title VII for a three year series of programs. Slow to get started, funds actually appropriated were not

available until a year and a half after the Act became law and then in amounts far less than those authorized. However, even the sums appropriated were not spent in their entirety as planning and implementation proved to be more difficult than had been legislation and funding. Bilingual education was an innovative, and thus unproven, approach which was hamstrung from the beginning by an acute shortage of bilingual teachers and the lack of a tried curriculum for their training. This resulted in many local school districts, attempting to initiate class efforts as soon as possible, being forced to start with incompetent and unprepared teachers and the outcome was far from encouraging. Teacher frustration at seeing little progress, student disinterest and apathy, and initial parent indecision all led to confusion that had to be overcome. The following growth comparison shows the upward trend in teaching personnel.

TEXAS BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROJECT PERSONNEL
a growth comparison

	1970/71		1971/72	
Teachers funded under Title VII ESEA:				
Bilingual	65		97	
Monolingual	6		25	
Total:		71		122
Teachers funded under other sources:				
Bilingual	396		577	
Monolingual	135		189	
Total:		531		766
Teacher Aides funded under Title VII ESEA:				
Bilingual	383		373	
Monolingual	16		26	
Total:		399		399
Teacher Aides funded under other sources:				
Bilingual	76		192	
Monolingual	6		10	
Total:		82		202

The Texas involvement in bilingual education came as a direct result of evaluation and surveys and the report of the Governor's Committee on Public School Education to the effect that equity in education was not a reality. Although there are several numerically important ethnic minorities in Texas the largest by far, comprising 20% of the population, is the Mexican American or Spanish-speaking. The initial program efforts therefore, were taught in English/Spanish. At the present time, Texas has approximately 2,800,000 students in school and 22% of this student population (over 600,000) consider Spanish as their first language and of this group 50% speak little or no English. These are the very young and unless special programs are offered, tailored to their needs, almost 300,000 students could remain educationally underdeveloped due to a language handicap.

The State Board of Education concluded that this type of program offered a possible solution to the chronic problem of education deficiency among the Mexican Americans. It also offered an approach to better citizenship and an opportunity for intercultural harmony, improved self image and a road to better jobs. The Board set in motion the machinery for research and planning and T.E.A. modified its accrediting standards to allow any ISD to operate bilingual programs on a "voluntary and experimental" basis. Goals had to be established and barriers had to be identified. The Texas Legislature in May of 1969 passed HB-103 (C. Truan) which recognized the fact that, "English shall be the basic language of instruction in all schools," but that "the governing board of any school district may determine when instruction may be given bilingually." This nullified a Texas law that prohibited the use of any language other than English as the medium of instruction and cleared the way for unrestricted bilingual education. Based on experience and evaluation, the Statewide Plan for Bilingual Education was redesigned last year using a proposal by the International and Bilingual Education department of T.E.A., and now serves as the framework for all such programs.

Bilingual education is by no means just a Texas phenomenon. During fiscal 1972 there were 106,000 children from Spanish-speaking communities in 25 states and Puerto Rico enrolled in bilingual programs, which means that the Texas enrollment shown at the end of page nine is just one-third of the national total. However, there is no doubt that Texas is foremost in the field, and again last year played host for a two day NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON BILINGUAL EDUCATION to a standing-room-only attendance in the auditorium of the Lyndon B. Johnson library in Austin. The theme of the conference was ably covered by twenty-five distinguished educators, recognized authorities in this field, and the printed proceedings of the conference ran to over 300 pages.

In conclusion, it should be noted that bilingual schooling, as a new approach toward educating children whose English is non-functional, can now be considered as having successfully passed the introductory period and the result is positive. Now in its fourth year in some ISD's, this concept has attracted many other school districts that are faced with the same need to surmount the language barrier in their teaching efforts so that today's participating student becomes tomorrow's better prepared adult. The following list of on-going projects illustrates better than anything else, the Texas commitment to bilingual education and its continued growth.

TEXAS BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROJECTS
1970/71 and 1971/72

Project District	Year of Project	Funding Authorized 70/71	Funding Authorized 71/72	Grade Level	Children Participating 70/71	Children Participating 71/72
Abernathy	4th	$ 90,000	$ 78,000	K-2,3	255	317
Abilene	2nd	125,000	139,000	K-3	549	819
Alice	3rd	105,000	98,000	1-3	270	335
Austin, Reg. 13	4th	156,770	163,400	1-3	657	734
Bishop	1st		89,000	K-3		250
Brownsville	2nd	150,000	198,000	K-1	780	1,492
Colorado City	3rd	70,900	71,300	K-2	213	273
Corpus Christi	3rd	85,000	104,000	K-2	300	480
Crystal City	2nd	137,000	178,800	K-3	801	964
Dallas	2nd	228,000	273,000	K-3	1,243	1,770
Del Rio	4th	105,000	134,000	K-4	925	2,460
Del Valle	3rd	120,000	96,300	1-8	210	224
Eagle Pass	1st		55,600	K-1		390
Edinburg	3rd	121,500	140,600	K-4	690	1,200
Edinburg, Reg. 1	4th	200,000	198,800	K-3	1,250	1,508
El Paso	2nd	156,000	149,800	K-3	960	1,148
Fort Worth	4th	392,600	630,000	Pre-4	1,862	1,848
Galveston	3rd	92,000	76,300	K-1	150	200
Houston	4th	253,350	253,000	K-57-12	1,000	1,275
Kingsville	3rd	73,000	73,700	K-3	205	293
La Joya	4th	101,700	118,800	K-6	949	1,371

Laredo	4th	100,000	91,600	K-7	480	450
Laredo	4th	120,000	118,600	1-5	869	1,040
Lubbock	4th	111,240	102,300	Pre-3	227	388
McAllen	4th	104,930	110,800	1-4	648	840
Orange Grove	3rd	112,000	103,300	K-3	208	276
Pharr	2nd	130,000	180,000	K-3	1,270	1,840
Port Isabel	3rd	166,500	181,400	K-4	383	501
Rio Grande City	1st		90,000	K-2		708
Robstown	1st		80,000	K-2		237
San Angelo	4th	159,300	144,300	Pre-3	435	570
San Antonio (Alamo)	3rd	130,000	124,570	Pre-2	201	198
San Antonio (Edgewood)	4th	223,200	355,000	1-4	1,440	2,460
San Antonio (SA ISD)	4th	398,710	410,260	K-16-10	1,024	1,084
San Antonio (South SA)	3rd	110,000	120,000	K-3	434	902
San Antonio (Southside)	2nd	125,000	120,000	K-3	279	362
San Diego	1st		79,300	4-6		448
San Marcos	4th	199,630	196,000	K-6	1,560	1,627
Weslaco	4th	110,000	143,940	K-4	860	1,100
Zapata	4th	119,000	115,000	K-5	599	632
		$5,182,330	$6,187,470		24,286	35,014

Number of Projects:
1970/71 = 35
1971/72 = 40
Source: Texas Education Agency

Regional Education Service Centers:

The State Board of Education was authorized by the 59th Legislature to set up media centers (audio-visual) throughout the state using funds from ESEA Title III which had been earmarked for supplemental education centers structured to meet local needs. In 1967 the 60th Legislature broadened considerably the scope of services to be offered by the centers thereby making the whole concept more comprehensive. There are twenty regions in the state, as the map on the opposite page indicates, and each contains a center designed, in cooperation with local school authorities, to provide services to school districts in its area in response to their needs.

The operational objective of the centers is to suggest ideas, teaching materials and provide supplementary assistance and services available to local school districts whenever and wherever needed or requested. The centers, in many instances, offer services which local districts are not able to provide for themselves, either because of the cost or the lack of personnel and special equipment. Joining a regional center is not obligatory. The decision to participate, or not, is a matter for the local school district but it is obvious that the "service center" idea has proven itself since over 90% of the 1,200 ISD's in Texas are participating in at least one phase of the regional program.

The fact that this program is administered on a regional basis gives the flexibility so necessary for Texas because of its size and diversity. The focus on regional planning permits analysis and identification of local education problems and if an identifiable need cannot be met by locally available services an appeal can be made to T.E.A. for a feasibility study to determine if additional service is warranted.

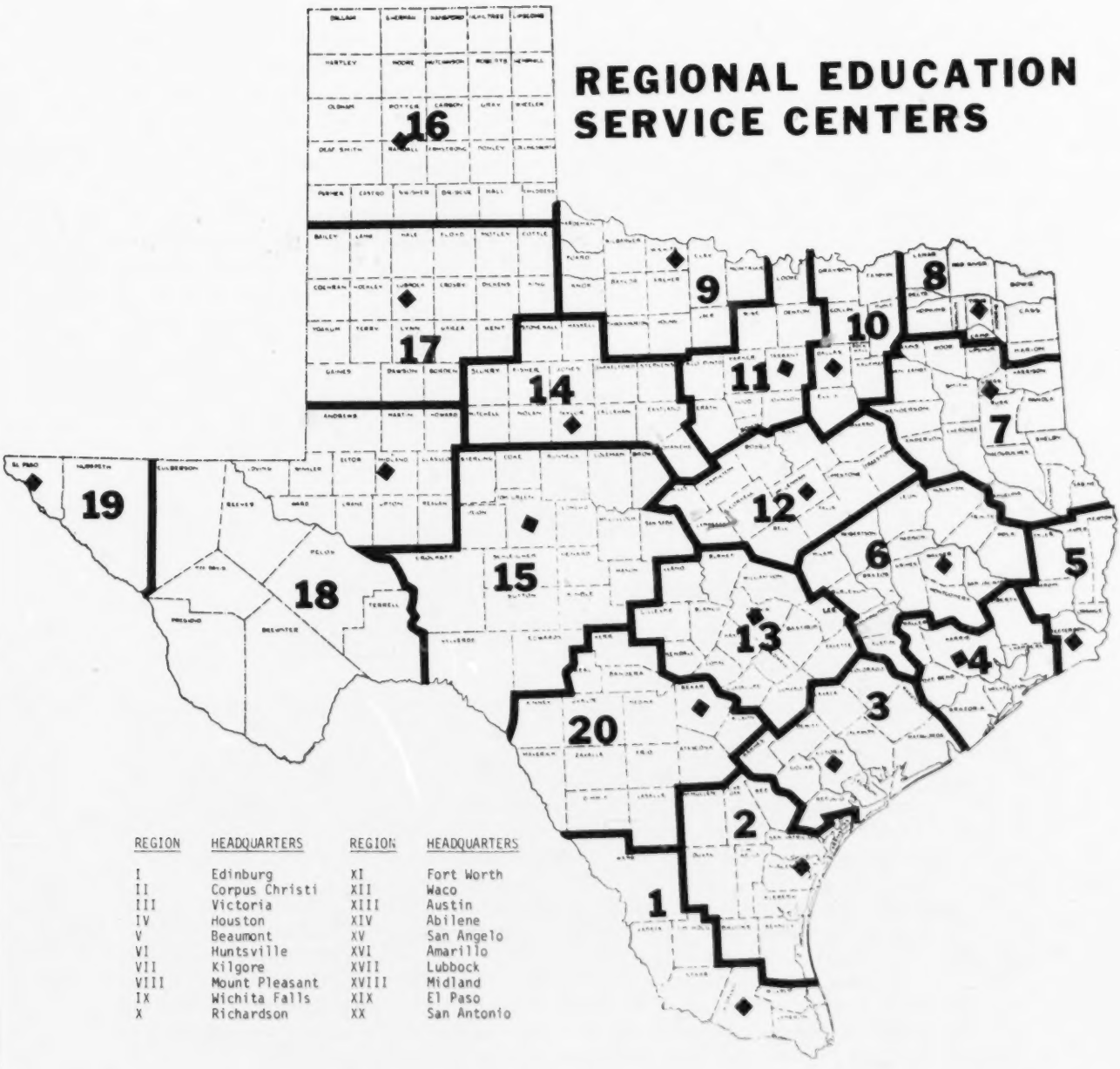
Of particular interest are the center's involvement in migrant education services and language proficiency aids. At the beginning of this program four of the regional centers with large migrant populations had a migrant specialist on the staff. There are now eight centers whose respective staffs are tied in with the Migrant and Preschool Program which presently serves approximately 50,000 children. Additional interest in this area is manifest by the fact that for the past two years the state director of the Service Centers has been acting as consultant and liaison person for the state's bilingual and child migrant programs and now works with the Tech/Voc and Career Education councils. This association is very important as the state director thus gets a better feel of the local pulse.

In a few short years the regional education service center concept has become an important adjunct to the T.E.A.'s educational effort. Having a reliable place to go for answers to problems, to borrow expertise and materials and to have one's voice heard in Austin is very gratifying to those who direct local school districts.

Adul Migrant Education:

To accomplish a truly valuable educational experience with migrant adults is much more difficult and costly than it is with children. The adult is less available, has more family and personal responsibilities and, as often as not, he feels that it is already too late to try and catch up. Many agencies and organizations have been involved in trying to teach adult migrants; however, progress has not matched initial expectations.

REGIONAL EDUCATION SERVICE CENTERS



REGION	HEADQUARTERS	REGION	HEADQUARTERS
I	Edinburg	XI	Fort Worth
II	Corpus Christi	XII	Waco
III	Victoria	XIII	Austin
IV	Houston	XIV	Abilene
V	Beaumont	XV	San Angelo
VI	Huntsville	XVI	Amarillo
VII	Kilgore	XVII	Lubbock
VIII	Mount Pleasant	XVIII	Midland
IX	Wichita Falls	XIX	El Paso
X	Richardson	XX	San Antonio

The best Texas figures show that over 70% of the migrant family heads have five years or less of schooling and probably function at an even lower level. The figures also show 60% of the remainder of the family as having six years or more, which indicates that the effort to reach the young is showing results. These data are based on voluntary answers and no attempt was made to verify them, hence, we are most probably dealing with years of "exposure" to education which is not necessarily a measure of achievement. The accuracy of the above figures may not be absolute; however, the fact that cannot be denied is almost two-thirds of all migrant adults are functional illiterates.

After six years of operation the Adult Migrant Education Program in Texas was discontinued as of January 1, 1972. Adverse audit and evaluation reports on the program product first brought program curtailment and finally dissolution. However, the migrant adult is still eligible to enroll in many projects, from basic education to skills training, operated by other agencies and the Regional Educational Service Centers in south Texas and the Department of Adult and Continuing Education continue their programs for these people.

Dissemination Center:

DISSEMINATION CENTER FOR BILINGUAL BICULTURAL EDUCATION

Last year Austin was chosen for the establishment of a national dissemination center for bilingual and bicultural materials in the field of education. The Center, located in the same facility as the Region XIII Service Center and funded by the U.S. Office of Education under Title VII of the ESEA, is to serve as a national clearinghouse for bilingual-bicultural products and services. Present day efforts on a national scale to implement the bilingual-bicultural concept as an integral part of U.S. education, required the creation of a center whose primary concern would be to acquire, edit and publish instructional materials relevant to Title VII projects and other allied groups in this field.

The dissemination center publishes a monthly annotated bibliography for free distribution entitled "CARTEL" which attempts to bring to the attention of project personnel a list of published materials and audio-visual teaching aids currently available as well as tools, curriculum development, library resources, community involvement, professional resources, etc. Although some published materials may be acquired from the Center most of the listings make reference to the publisher who is then the source of further information concerning content, price and delivery. For the reader interested in receiving "CARTEL" write to the Center at 6504 Tracor Lane, Austin, Texas — 78721.

College Assistance Migrant Program:

During 1972 the Migrant Division of the Office of Economic Opportunity established the College Assistance Migrant Program (CAMP) on three different campuses; St. Edward's University in Austin, Pan-American University in Edinburg, Texas and San Diego State in California. This program offers migrant and seasonal farmworker youths the opportunity to enter a four year university and continue their educational pursuit. The student must be between the ages of 17 and 24 and must have either a high school diploma, a GED certificate or have graduated from a High School Equivalency Program (HEP) which is an OEO funded project in operation since 1967. Enrollment records show that 80% of the students are from HEP programs and that an equal percentage are Mexican Americans.

Frequently it was found that students who had earned their HEP certificates were being denied entrance to colleges and universities because they did not have a regular high school diploma. Another, and even stronger deterrent to continued education is its cost so CAMP attempts to alleviate both of these factors by not only accepting the HEP graduate but by also providing educational loans and grants plus a monthly stipend for personal expenses. Another unique feature is that CAMP provides the needy student with a four-week summer enrichment session for preparatory and catch-up work prior to the start of the normal term.

B. HOUSING:

Since our coverage in last year's report there has been little concrete progress in the area of housing. Housing shortages continue to exist at all levels of society and the imbalance between supply and demand is chronic. The area of least improvement, however, is that of housing for transient laborers, most specifically those in agriculture.

Travel Housing:

The most common travel pattern for migrants on the move is to drive right through to destination by alternating drivers and stopping only for gas and food breaks. Inadvisable as this may be, it is generally dictated by a lack of funds to pay for overnight lodging and proper rest. Even when the future employer has advanced money for travel, the tendency is to save as much as possible in travel expenses since the migrant is uncertain if work and earnings will be forthcoming upon arrival, and he wants to avoid getting in debt.

The present attitude of the public toward migrants in the destination work areas has changed from one of tolerance to acceptance and an active concern to help. However, this is not reflected either in travel rest facilities enroute, or within the state of Texas. Although the Texas Highway Department maintains one of the nation's most praised chains of roadside rest stops none are designed for overnight use. The Texas migrant transportation law requires a full and adequate rest stop at the end of 500 miles of travel (it is 650 miles from the Lower Valley to Texarkana or to the Lubbock area) or ten hours of driving, but since free or low-cost facilities do not exist most migrants, in an attempt to comply with the law, strike a compromise by snatching a nap and are soon back on the road again. The only real rest stop on the northbound trek is the Migrant Labor Center in Hope, Arkansas, which is open nine months a year. The Center is in its second decade of service to migrant travelers but has been at its present location only since 1965, so the following figures date from then.

Visitors to Hope, Arkansas Center

1965 — 17,905	1969 — 55,652
1966 — 28,237	1970 — 56,513
1967 — 41,676	1971 — 48,653
1968 — 48,593	1972 — 48,463

The above figures are totals for an "up and back" count, as most migrants stop off on their return trip if they are homeward bound. The "client" load appears to be holding steady despite the well known fact that there are fewer work opportunities each year and fewer known migrants traveling. It is hoped that the Center will remain active (it is now being funded on a year-to-year contingency basis) as it is the only on-stream location where interviewing is possible, and since everyone who uses the facility must register it is possible to gather reliable demographic characteristics and data. For example, a recap of the registration forms show that the demographic make-up has varied but slightly over the last four years.

PERCENTAGE OF:	Youth Under 16	Total Workers	Workers Male	Workers Female
1969	39.6%	60.4%	52.0%	48.0%
1970	40.3%	59.7%	51.5%	48.5%
1971	40.0%	60.0%	51.8%	48.2%
1972	38.5%	61.5%	53.2%	46.8%

The destination Migrant Reception Center near Liberty Center in Ohio operated last year at capacity, and was again prominent in Ohio's relocation project (page 4 of Consumer State Concerns). Also, this year through the efforts of the Minnesota Migrant Council and other state service organizations a full-service rest stop will be opened in Luverne (in the southwest corner of Minnesota on state highway 75) which is the gateway to the Red River Valley agriculture area. The facility will open May 14 and close in mid-July, or until the services are no longer needed.

Work Area Housing:

This Commission, during the Fall of 1972, conducted a week-long series of interviews with returning migrants at the Hope, Arkansas center and the conclusion arrived at, concerning destination or work area housing, is that it has not noticeably improved. Could it be that what was adequate housing a few years ago is now inadequate? Is it that the migrant workers now expect too much? State agencies involved in housing inspection and licensing report favorably on upgrading and improvements and yet other sources maintain that the opposite is true. It is claimed that the farmers and housing owners are well aware that there is an employer's labor market with an abundance of "freewheelers" available for hiring despite the Employment Service's efforts to dissuade all uncommitted workers from traveling. Under these circumstances, the housing providers do not need the government recruiting services,

hence, why should they spend money to fix up and improve their housing in order to pass inspection when they will not be applying for a permit anyway? However, this theory and practice may come to an abrupt end once the newly formed Occupational Safety and Health Administration becomes opertional in the area of agriculture labor housing as then it will no longer be a matter of farmer's economy but of compliance with federal law. We suggest that the government encourage the housing owners to invest in new housing or improvements by either directly sharing the cost, by permitting immediate write-off as a tax break, or by some similar economic scheme that will ease the cost. If this is done the worker is better housed, the owner's financial burden is less onerous and the Department of Labor gets back to recruiting and employment services as it always has been. Government cooperation and a helping hand to the owners is preferable to coercion, especially if everyone concerned benefits.

In 1971 a federal court decision struck down the validity of the farmer/owner practice of posting "No Trespassing" around their housing areas. The ruling denied the sanctity of controlled access to labor housing by owners since the worker's housing is an intrinsic part of his "income" (whether he pays rent or not) and thus is subject to free access just as though it were his own home. At the time it was thought that this milestone decision would indirectly bring a general improvement to work area housing since it would now be clearly open to scrutiny and criticism, but that does not seem to have been the case. From the opinions expressed by the migrants, little if any effort has been directed toward the physical improvement of housing facilities although trash and garbage disposal and general sanitation is better than before.

Work area housing within Texas took a step forward with the implementation last year of the state's new labor housing law. The 62nd Legislature in 1971 approved HB-1254 (L. Curz) as the Migrant Labor Camp Law which establishes rules and regulations governing labor housing. However the Texas Department of Health was unable to begin inspection and licensing until last year because of delay in appropriated funds. At the present time the Central Office in Austin has a sanitarian consultant and a secretary to coordinate the field operations. The field activities of the program began by establishing an office in Lubbock consisting of a supervisor, three sanitarians and a clerk, whose area of responsibility is the High Rolling Plains and Panhandle region. In time, three other field offices will be located in other agriculture-intense areas in order to cover the entire state.

The first phase of the program in any area is to conduct a survey to determine the number of farm labor housing facilities in each Public Health Region that fall within the perview of the law. The first survey indicated that the Lubbock office will eventually be working with over 300 different facilities. The second phase of the program is to distribute applications and copies of the law to housing owners and to answer any questions that might arise. The third phase is the actual inspection of premises pursuant to receipt of applications. When applications are received the Central Office issues a temporary permit which allows the use of the housing until inspection can be scheduled. The result of the inspection and evaluation is made known to the housing provider in writing in the form of a "recommendations for improvement" report with a time limit for compliance and second inspection. When housing is approved (either initially or after improvements) the owner pays his fee and receives his "certificate for operation of a migrant labor camp." The Central Office estimates it will be three years before phase three is completed statewide.

Current Developments

In the area of multiple unit public housing for farm workers in Texas there has been little or no planning or building activity this past year. However, efforts are being made by the Farmers Home Administration to attain fiscal stability for the three projects it was instrumental in building, namely; Dimmitt (Castro County), Plainview (Hale County) and Sabinal (Uvalde County). The latter facility can be considered almost self-sustaining, but this is not the case for the other two. The FmHA is in the process of rewriting their contractual obligations to change them from a housing "association" to a housing "authority" which could open the way for the projects to have their financial obligations changed to 90% grant and 10% loan at 1% interest. As proof of why help is needed, here is how Plainview lost almost fifty thousand dollars in last year's operation.

* Utilities and Power	=	$ 21,000
** Manager and Maintenance	=	35,000
Trash pick up	=	700
Taxes	=	16,000
Interest and Loan Payment	=	27,000
Depreciation	=	35,300
		$135,000
Income		86,000
Loss		$ 49,000

* No charge for these services made to renters.
** Over twenty thousand of this was due to damage and vandalism.

Home Base Housing:

There is little to report in this area of housing other than to update the activities of the Farmers Home Administration which is the principal vehicle for financing low cost housing in rural areas and in small towns under 10,000 population. Although the national budget for the FmHA was increased somewhat for FY-1973, to reach the figure of $2,155 billion, the Texas share decreased considerably. The amount allocated for Texas was only $84 million, down from the previous two years, and it is doubtful if this full amount will be utilized for loans and expenditures. It was projected that the total amount of loans for FY-1972 would be a substantial increase over 1971 and might even reach as much as $100 million; however, this did not come to pass and the amount remained about the same, as the figures below indicate. The figures for the first six months of 1973 show that the volume of approved loans is moving at a slower rate than the previous year (at calendar year's end there were still 3,000 applications pending to be processed) and a monetary projection for the year would produce a figure no larger than $60 million. This type of housing assistance seems to be on the decline and under present circumstances a turn-around is unlikely.

FY-	1969	4,000 loan contracts	$26,000,000 loaned
	1970	4,600	38,000,000
	1971	7,140	72,000,000
	1972	5,835	69,200,000
	1973 (6 mo.)	2,368	28,370,000

Included in the 1972 figure of $69.2 million is $162,000 which was loaned to the Hidalgo County Housing Authority for building a new low cost housing project at Weslaco in the Lower Valley for local farm workers as well as for migrants when not on the stream. Not included in the figure is $1.45 million given as a grant to make up the total cost of the project. In essence this is replacement housing of cement block construction which, when ready for occupation, will allow the razing of the decrepit wooden structures of the adjoining camp. Once the old camp is gone and the land cleared, hopefully the FmHA will assist again in a second new camp as the need for more housing is apparent.

C. HEALTH:

The delivery of health services to migrants in Texas was dealt a severe blow last year when the State Department of Health's proposal to refund the Migrant Health Project was refused by the federal Public Health Service. On the eve of its 10th anniversary the administrative arm of the project, located at department headquarters in Austin, was phased out and ceased to function as of January 31, 1973. The staff who expressed a desire to remain with the Health Department was absorbed by other divisions within the department.

The twenty local clinics serving migrants, funded and audited directly from Washington through the regional office in Dallas, continue to function, and all of the individual clinics that presented new funding requests at due date were approved so that the project remains operative in the field. The local clinics still functioning are as follows:

STATUS OF
MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECTS OPERATING IN TEXAS
1972-1973

Project County	Grantee Organization	Expiration	Funds
1) Hale	Plainview-Hale County Health District	5-31-74	$175,000
2) Webb	Laredo-Webb County Health Department	5-31-74	404,000
3) Cameron	Cameron County Health Department	4-30-74	132,500
4) Jim Wells	Jim Wells County Commissioner's Court	12-31-73	50,100
5) Zapata	Zapata County Commissioner's Court	5-31-74	60,500

6) Crosby	Crosby County Commissioner's Court	7-31-73	52,000
7) Gonzales	Gonzales County Medical Society	5-31-74	115,000
8) Hidalgo	Hidalgo County Health Department	12-31-74	540,000
9) La Salle	La Salle County Commissioner's Court	3-31-74	55,600
10) Val Verde	Del Rio-Val Verde County Health Department	5-31-74	62,000
11) Lamb	Littlefield City Council	12-31-73	64,200
12) Comanche	De Leon Municipal Hospital	5-31-74	70,500
12) Floyd	Floyd County Commissioner's Court	3-31-73	55,000
14) Jim Hogg	Jim Hogg County Commissioner's Court	3-31-74	25,000
15) Hays	San Marcos-Hays County Health Department	10-31-73	48,000
16) Starr	Starr County Community Action Council	12-31-73	100,700
17) Bexar	Southwest Migrant Association	5-31-74	255,000
18) Deaf Smith	Deaf Smith County Public Health Clinic, Inc.	5-31-74	83,000
19) San Patricio	San Patricio County Committee on Youth Education & Job Opportunity	5-31-74	154,000
20) Cameron and Willacy	Catholic Charities, Inc.	4-30-74	360,000
		Total	$2,862,100

It is not possible at this time to say with certainty what the future holds for the local clinics, but reliable sources have indicated that the Migrant Health Act of 1962 will continue to receive approval from Congress when it comes up for a vote in June of 1973. If such is the case, the grass roots services portion of the project in Texas should remain essentially the same.

When Austin received notice that its proposal had been rejected, all of the health departments in other states with whom Texas had been exchanging migrant health referrals were notified that all future referrals should be sent directly to the clinic in Texas nearest the patient's home base. In reality, it took several months for this directive to take effect as out of state referrals continued to be sent to Austin; however, at the present time the few that are received are simply forwarded to the proper local clinic.

The file of punch card and computer tape health records on migrants that have been accumulated is still intact and contains over 6,000 finished records and another 3,500 records in raw form that have not been processed. How this information will eventually be utilized is uncertain, but for the time being, it is safely stored at the Health Department.

Comprehensive Health Planning:

Recognizing the need for comprehensive health planning throughout the United States, Congress passed PL 89-749 in November of 1966 as an amendment to the Public Health Service Act. This public law provided both the rationale and the funds for establishing and implementing comprehensive health planning at the various levels of government to accomplish "the fulfillment of our national purpose depends upon promoting and assuring the highest level of health attainable, for every person, in an environment which contributes positively to healthful individual and family living." In Texas this endeavor was attached to the Governor's office and assigned the task of developing a comprehensive plan for the entire population. Comprehensive health planning differs from functional or specialized health planning in that the focus is on *all* of the people's total health needs — which makes it all inclusive.

This brief introduction to the comprehensive concept in health considerations should indicate that Texas does have an active program and suggests that this Executive Department office may be useful in helping to coordinate migrant health services offered by the local project clinics since the administrative portion of the Migrant Health Project has been discontinued. By this time next year it should be known if the clinics are able to survive and maintain their efficiency under the present scheme of federal/regional supervision.

Vocational Rehabilitation:

The Texas Rehabilitation Commission will continue to expand its volume of services to the state's migrant population. However, it is restricted by regulations as to the scope of services it can provide. There is no way, of course, that the TRC could replace the Migrant Health Project clinics but the services rendered in the area of rehabilitation are an adjunct to the project and fill a very definite need which the clinics were not able to provide.

Congress laid the groundwork for rehabilitation planning and programs by passing the "Vocational Rehabilitation Act" in 1921 and thereby established the basis for federal/state participation in nationwide rehabilitation efforts. Texas, in 1929, started its program which was originally administered by the State Board of Education. At first only physical orthopedic disabilities were considered; however, as more disability groups were introduced into the program it became obvious that this division of the Education Agency should be formed into a separate agency or commission. The rehabilita-

tion program with its unique involvement in areas of health, education and job placement could not effectively accommodate itself in any one state agency, so the 61st Legislature created the Texas Rehabilitation Commission as a state agency in its own right on September 1, 1969.

It has become increasingly apparent in recent years that many handicapped individuals are unaware of the services available to them. The seasonal and migrant farmworker families are among the least informed. In an effort to reach them the TRC has expanded its offices and staff in the migrant impacted areas of the Lower Rio Grande Valley, and provided bilingual staff and published bulletins and directives in Spanish. One year after the creation of the TRC an office was opened in Pharr to provide vocational rehabilitation services exclusively for migrants and the rest of the area offices continue to refer their migrant patients to Pharr. It is indisputable that the Commission has been successful in reaching these people as the percentage increases in migrant patients from the Lower Valley are higher than anywhere else in the state. The following figures indicate the Commission's statewide performance record and impressive rate of growth.

Year	Persons Served	Rehabilitated
FY- 1970	80,000	12,000
1971	90,000	14,000
1972	113,200	21,900
1973 (6 mo.)	92,270	11,300

Aptitude and an enlarging experience has enabled the Commission to bring down the cost per rehabilitated patient to just over $2,000. Since there are thousands of patients, this amounts to a considerable sum of money but it is not an expense, rather it is an investment which produces daily returns in pride, dignity and job stimulated income taxes.

The Texas Rehabilitation Commission now employs 1,842 persons in 190 offices throughout the state and last year Texas was number one in the nation in the number of individuals rehabilitated. By extending the 6 months figures shown above, FY-1973 promises to do as well, and perhaps surpass, 1972 in both categories shown. However, the most dramatic increases in patient load and persons rehabilitated has occurred in the nine offices along the Rio Grande. The projection figures of these offices for FY-1973 compared with 1972 show; 1) an increase of 75% in the number of migrant and Spanish-surname patients served, 2) a 59% increase in program expenditures — up to approximately $2.9 million/year.

As in the case of Comprehensive Health Planning, there is no intention to intimate that the TRC can invade the area of services now performed by the Migrant Health Project clinics, but instead, to indicate the growth and success of this very specialized program of treatment, training and job placement available to all handicapped citizens in the state.

Project "SAFEGUARD":

Project Safeguard is a coordinated effort of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, the Department of Agriculture and other agencies to alert and inform individuals using highly toxic pesticides and those who may be exposed to them by entering fields that have recently been sprayed or treated. The project is essentially educational in structure and includes audio-visual materials and publications in Spanish since the persons most in need of this instruction are the Mexican American farm hands and field workers.

DDT first captured the imagination of the public when it halted a louse-borne typhus outbreak in Naples near the end of World War II. This marked the first time in history that man had been able to stop a vector-borne epidemic before it had run its natural course. This initiated the modern era of pesticide technology that proved to be such a boon to the production of food and fiber. However, by the 1950's some scientists were becoming disenchanted with DDT due to increased insect tolerance and because it was such a durable and persistent chemical that it posed harmful environmental effects. In recent years restrictions have been placed on the use of DDT but the final ban on its general usage was signed in June of 1972 and after allowing a six months transitional period the order was fully implemented December 31, 1972 prohibiting the use of DDT.

Records show that of the total DDT consumption about 90% was used by small farmers growing cotton, soybeans and peanuts in fourteen southern states, including Texas. These farmers and their workers for the first time will now be using very concentrated and toxic organophosphate insecticides which were developed to replace DDT and are therefore, the target group that must be reached with information and instructions.

The calendar timing of the Texas migrant often finds him on stream as early as the first of April so this group was given first priority to receive the lectures and demonstrations on this subject. The dissemination programs were directed at the classroom students in migrant school programs and to migrant labor camps using bilingual instructors and handout material printed in Spanish. From initial observations the school program seemed the most effective as the students were very attentive and responsive and seemed to be proud of the opportunity to take something home to their parents bearing the stamp of importance that this subject has — the protection of health.

Occupational Safety and Health Administration:

This recently created administration within the U.S. Department of Labor followed the passage by Congress of the Williams-Steiger Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970. It is the duty of this government agency (OSHA) to protect and safeguard *all* workers against any and all safety or health hazards while at work. The design of the Act makes it the most inclusive legislation that has been enacted in any country for the protection of its people at the workplace. Further, this Act holds precedence over all state laws or regulations concerned with worker health and safety. Most states are updating their statutes to be in conformity with OSHA so as to maintain jurisdiction over the enforcement of their regulations and to avoid confusion with employers who may not know what laws should be obeyed.

This subject is presented at this time to bring out the fact that all farmers and growers, agri producers and processors, plant and field workers (whether local or migrant) will all be subject to compliance with the regulations corresponding to their working conduct and their working environment. This means that OSHA inspections and investigations will encompass the entire food and fiber industry in order to prevent accidents (on farm, gins and presses, packing and processing, distribution) and guard against health hazards (labor camp conditions, pesticides, vector menace, ambient dangers) for the benefit of both workers and employers. Next year's report will carry a more detailed treatment of this important subject and its effect on the world of business and work.

D. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT:

Economic development and job development can almost be considered as mirror images of each other as any reaction in one area reflects equally on the other. The two concepts are entirely interrelated since improvement in one enhances the other in a positive manner. There is a tendency to think of economic development as increasing the monetary worth in a fixed region by using money, materials and labor to create saleable goods or services which would in turn increase the standard of living in the area. In this context, it would seem therefore, that job development is dependent on, or subservient to, whatever direction economic planning takes. On the other hand, a trained and available labor force can be the catalyst to initiate economic planning and then be the deciding factor to promote action. However, regardless of which concept appears to have preference, they are both guided by the desire to offer everyone an equal opportunity to better themselves whatever their circumstances might be. The circumstances of need, economic deprivation and despair are to be found in all corners of the nation, urban and rural, but South Texas has an inordinately large share of these tragic conditions, particularly among the migrants and Mexican Americans.

This situation in the southern part of the state is not new, it has been endemic for literally decades. Thus far little remedial progress is apparent when one compares the day-to-day, down-to-earth circumstances of economy and employment security of these people with the minimal needs of people in the rest of the country. Very truly there is a gap, and Texas wants to narrow and eventually close the gap.

Over the years there have been numerous surveys and feasibility studies concerned with the introduction of industry into South Texas to improve its economic position and the conclusion of virtually all of the reports has been negative; improvement is either impossible or too costly. Some of the "insurmountable" problems, to name a few, are:

1) Region too far away from consumer markets and unable to compete because of added burden of transportation costs.

2) Employment opportunities depend on local economic and natural resources which are lacking in this region.

3) Large labor pool available but mostly unskilled and hard to train because of low education levels and language problem.

4) If industry did come to the region so would Mexicans, legal or otherwise, and disrupt the labor market.

5) There is little possibility of changing present immigration practices that exercise a downward pressure on wages and thus ensure the persistency of poverty.

6) Low labor costs may attract industry but paying low wages defeats the goal of trying to raise the standard of living.

One cannot refute the validity of these arguments and conclusions but neither can one refrain from seeking answers and solutions to these obstacles, or devising means to circumvent them. "Hay que hacer la lucha" — we must try!

Greater South Texas Cultural Basin:

One way in which Texas is trying involves a new "cultural basin" concept which was formulated in the Governor's Office as a new program approach to improve the quality of life for many residents of the state. The state has been divided into four cultural basin regions, using the state planning regions as building blocks, and the one we are interested in is the Greater South Texas Cultural Basin which consists of a forty county area of South Texas made up of planning regions 1, 2 and 3.

In analyzing social and economic conditions throughout the state it is readily apparent than South Texas is one of the most severely depressed areas in Texas as well as in the nation. It was obvious that this "basin" would be chosen as the logical area for a pilot program since it is not only the most urgently in need of assistance but also considered to be the most difficult in which to achieve success. Thus the GSTCB was formed in September of 1972 as the primary mechanism to carry out this project to improve the dismal statistics and solve the long term economic and social problems that have for so long been a barrier to progress in that area.

The 22 member Commission is composed of the Governor and representatives from the local citizenry, federal agency heads, state agency heads, and regional councils of government. This unique "partnership of governments and citizens" reverses the decision making process by putting the program initiative and the establishment of goals and priorities in the hands of the local Commission members. This is in accord with the Administration's thinking as expressed in the President's Rural Development Message to Congress last year, which in part contained:

> ". . . plans which are developed at levels close to the people are likely to be more realistic, more imaginative and more useful than abstract blueprints which are drawn up far away from the scene of the action or which are altered to meet rigid Federal rules. Effective development does not require plans that can survive the scrutiny of Washington. Effective development requires plans that people believe in and will work to accomplish."

Full coordination of the various program elements is expected during 1973 and the report of the Commission at the end of FY-1974 should reflect the degree of success the cultural basin approach has had.

Rural Development:

The Texas Rural Development Commission was established in the belief that direct and coordinated action can change the pattern of rural decline and stem the rural to urban migration. The purpose of rural development is parallel to that of the cultural basin concept, namely; to improve job opportunities and community services along with the social and physical environment of the small

towns and farm communities in Texas. This would logically improve the quality of life in the rural areas and thus relieve some of the pressure on the urban centers.

Title IX of the National Agricultural Act of 1970 states: "The Congress commits itself to a sound balance between rural and urban America. The Congress considers this balance so essential to the peace, prosperity and welfare of all our citizens that the highest priority must be given to the revitalization and development of rural areas." To help carry out this commitment to rural/urban balance, the Congress passed the Rural Development Act of 1972, "to provide for improving the economy and living conditions in rural America." This was followed almost immediately by an Executive Order by Governor Preston Smith on April 22, 1972 to form the 25 member Commission. The Commission is divided into eight committees to deal with specific problem areas (human resources, natural resources, transportation, economic activity, general government, education, housing and health) and eighty state and local resource people have been appointed to assist the committees.

The situation in rural Texas last year can best be explained by the use of some facts and survey conclusions:

1) The total rural population dropped from 3,503,000 to 2,261,000 between 1940 and 1970 and fell from 55% of the total population to about 20% during the same period.

2) Migration of young people from rural areas has left a residual aging population in rural Texas.

3) In 1920, 48% of the rural population lived on farms but by 1970 that proportion had declined to 21%, and in 1972 it was only 17%.

4) Poverty statistics indicate that 26% of the nonmetropolitan population are poor compared with 17% in metropolitan areas.

5) During the 1960-1970 decade the agri work force declined by 100,000 while rural nonfarm employment increased by 128,000.

6) Although the number of farms is decreasing nationally, it is increasing in Texas.

7) One third of the "population" and one half of the "poor" in rural Texas are members of an ethnic minority group.

A look at the labor force and employment in NONmetropolitan Texas in 1970 we find that of the total population of 2,912,659 that only 1,009,573 (35%) are employed of which 895,236 (89%) were employed in nonfarm occupations and only 114,337, (11%) were occupied in farm work.

Although the original Executive Order was to continue in force through October 31 of 1973 the legislature, nevertheless, formalized that order by making the Texas Rural Development Commission a permanent entity and allocated funds for its function.

Mexican Border Industrialization:

Any discussion of economic development in Texas that did not take into account the existence of the Mexican Border Industry Program would, indeed, be incomplete. In November of 1965 a new type of industry was established along the U.S.-Mexican border. It has been called the "twin plant" operation since a manufacturer in the U.S. using captial-intense procedures produces and sends to a sister plant or factory in Mexico the component parts or uncompleted product for the labor-intense final assembly since the labor cost is about one-sixth of what it would have been in the U.S. Lower wages for high labor requirement operations is therefore, the principal incentive for establishing twin plants on the border. A second incentive is above average worker productivity.

The Border Industry Program was conceived by Mexico and the regulations governing participation in the program were drawn up in conformity with Mexican laws. The principal purpose of the program is to improve the economy of the border cities by providing jobs for the thousands of Mexicans who migrate to the border each year in an attempt to escape the grinding poverty in some rural areas of the interior. The program's real growth spiral did not begin until 1968 at which time the controversies also began. Despite the fact that the program is completely Mexican in concept and implementation, it has become a major issue in the realm of U.S. economic policy, a rallying cry for organized labor in the U.S. and a lively topic for pro and con debate. The first denunciation of the border plants by the AFL/CIO came in late 1967 and has continued with varying intensity ever since. There is no doubt that organized labor's concern is real and that labor is upset at having "run away" plants just across the border, but, in reality, the Mexican program is merely a recent manifestation of the same concept that fathered older cheap labor programs in various countries around the world, most of which are still operating.

The most up-to-date information available indicates that there are approximately 350 plant facilities (seven of which employ over 1,000 workers) employing 46,000 persons. The programs growth pattern for 1972 continued upward but not equal to the 1970-71 rate and the industry "mix" continues to favor electronics-oriented manufacturing as the following breakdown indicates.

INDUSTRY ACTIVITIES OF BORDER FIRMS

Industry	Number of Plant Facilities	
	June 1971	June 1972
Electric-Electronics	118	152
Textiles	77	76
Metal Working	26	22
Furniture and Wood Products	16	20
Leather	6	12
Plastics	6	10
Other	44	53
TOTAL	293	345

What the future of the program is, and what Congressional legislation, if any, may be forthcoming to restrict or prohibit these "just across the border" operations is difficult to determine. For those who are thinking in the direction of restrictions it is well to be informed that the dollar volume of the Mexican program is less than 5% of the world wide volume of similar foreign operations. Another factor to consider is that during the last decade the legal minimum wage for Mexican workers has increased by 300% and although wages in Mexico remain far below those in the U.S., the question of labor costs is still crucial when contemplating a "twin plant" operation. However, even though the attraction of low cost labor may weaken somewhat in the future the advantages of tranportation savings and close proximity parent company supervision are very real and not likely to alter.

Although the Border Industry Program is now in its fifth year of virtually unrestrained operation and many hard statistics are on file concerning the number of plants and employees, the volume and value of goods moving in both directions, the amounts paid in tariffs and taxes, et. it is, nevertheless, extremely difficult to evaluate the economic impact on Texas and its border area. The need for "soft" statistics is imperative if we are to understand the less obvious socio-economic implications of the program. Much research is required in this area.

TRENDS IN MIGRATION AND SUMMARY OF DATA — 1972

The title of this last chapter is in a way anti-climactic, since throughout this report the migration is shown as trending downward. Diminishing job opportunities and the need for "negative recruiting" to avert the migrant's disappointment of not finding work is all too obvious. In the last decade the total amount of employment for seasonal farmworkers (local domestic, migratory and foreign) has decreased 31% to just over 6 million man-months. The decline in agri worker demand varies in different states and is influenced by factors such as weather, type of crop planted, total acreage, crop yield, etc. For example, during the past eleven years the percentage decrease in man-months of seasonal labor required in Texas was 55%, in Michigan 50% and in Ohio it remained the same.

Looking only at the change in consumption of migratory labor for the same period a comparison of the states shown in Table I is proof of the wide variation in use of migrants.

Table I

Table I Man-Months of Migratory Labor, Selected States
(numbers in thousands)

State	1960	1965	1967	1969	1971	% change 11 yrs.
California	279	403	313	338	322	+15
Florida	100	102	130	128	95	−5
Michigan	150	136	137	112	77	−49
Texas	268	130	71	72	51	−81
Washington	64	67	69	60	63	−3
New Jersey	52	61	58	45	46	−12
New York	92	70	63	46	41	−55
Ohio	32	44	52	41	42	+31
Oregon	55	52	57	48	37	−33
Total U.S.	1,674	1,529	1,410	1,299	1,095	−34

The type of crops raised in a particular state does much to indicate what the labor demands will be and mechanization is generally the deciding factor. For instance, in labor-intense crops such as tobacco and fruits which have resisted mechanization, the consumption of labor remains relatively steady whereas cotton (highly mechanized) uses only one third the amount of labor it did six years ago and almost all of that is for field maintenance, not for harvesting. Table II on the following page tells the story.

Table II

Table II Man-Months of Seasonal Hired Farm Labor by Crop, 1965 to 1971
(numbers in thousands)

	1965	1967	1969	1971
All activities	8,079	7,099	6,838	6,423
Percent decrease		−5	−2	−3
All vegetables	1,843	1,682	1,547	1,352
All fruits	1,563	1,505	1,517	1,369
Tobacco	782	673	637	591
Cotton	1,117	585	487	369
All grain	421	396	407	437
Nursery	188	208	253	329
Livestock	233	223	216	214
Hay	281	151	245	246
Sugar Beets	144	139	131	98

The national trend in farm wage rates has been upward as with all other wages, but in recent years there has been an acceleration in the rate of increase due primarily to the fact that the federal minimum wage now affects about one fourth of the farm workers and because farmers have had to raise wages in order to compete with industry for semi-skilled workers. New legislation is pending in Congress, which if passed will substantially increase the minimum wage for farm workers which is presently $1.30/hour. The following figures show definite trends in regard to work and earnings.

UNITED STATES:

EMPLOYMENT (worker figures in 1,000s)	1971	1970	1969	1968	1967
Total Employment	79,120	78,627	77,902	75,920	74,372
Agriculture	3,387	3,462	3,606	3,817	3,844
Percentage of Total	4.3	4.4	4.7	5.0	5.2
Seasonal Hired Farmworkers	535	550	570	578	592
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE					
All Workers	5.9	4.9	3.5	3.6	3.8
Agriculture	7.9	7.5	6.0	6.3	6.9
HOURS AVG./WEEK					
Non-agriculture	38.9	38.7	39.5	39.7	40.0
Agriculture	45.9	45.7	46.1	46.3	46.5

WAGES/HOUR

Farm Worker without Room or Board	1.73	1.64	1.55	1.44	1.33
Factory workers	3.57	3.36	3.19	3.01	2.83

TEXAS:

Farm Worker without Room or Board	1.48	1.38	1.31	1.23	1.12

Texas has always been below the national average in farm wages (which this year varies from a low of $1.26 in South Carolina to $2.00 and above in Connecticut, Washington and Rhode Island) and with the exception of 1971 the difference is consistently more than twenty cents. It is doubtful that Texas could ever match the national average since the Lower Rio Grande Valley wages remain about 25% below the average for the state.

	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
¢ under average	21¢	21¢	24¢	26¢	19¢	26¢
% under average	16%	15%	15%	16%	11%	14%

The figures in the chart below from the Texas Employment Commission show that the interstate migrant make-up is essentially the same but the "total" migration for last year is only 30% of what it was in 1967.

Interstate Agricultural Migrant Make-Up
1967-1972

	1967	1969	1971	1972
A. Total Individuals	114,979	85,393	45,860	33,593
a) Male, 16 and over	41,657	31,163	18,115	12,450
b) Female, 16 and over	33,299	23,509	13,236	10,926
c) Youth under 16	40,023	30,721	14,509	10,217
B. Total Workers	78,270	59,737	31,351	23,376
a) % of Total Individuals	68.0%	70.0%	68.5%	69.5%
C. Families	16,524	11,700	6,475	4,839
D. Unattached males	7,384	7,871	5,054	4,001
E. Unattached females	2,074	2,198	2,031	1,646

Note: These figures do not include migrants recruited by Bureau of Labor Statistics licensees or "free-wheelers."

Trends and Summary

The following figures, taken from the yearly reports of the Texas Employment Commission, leave no doubt that the trend in its services to migrants and farm workers continues its inexorable downward path.

	1968	1970	1972
Total farm placements	234,000	196,000	150,100
% less two yr. period	14%	16%	23%
States sending job orders	34	31	28
Job Orders	2,072	1,005	486
% less	17%	50%	51%
Job Openings	102,791	50,027	31,969
% less	24%	51%	36%
Jobs Referred (filled)	73,460	35,176	15,975
% less	17%	52%	54%
T.E.C. Orders	1,261	633	324
% less	15%	50%	49%
Crews + Family Heads	3,902	2,300	1,006
Out-of-State Groups	3,426	3,090	2,895
Total:	7,328	5,390	3,901
% less two yr. period	20%	26%	28%
Average number of jobs filled per worker	1.4	1.1	1.1